



PHD

**English as an international language in higher education:
A collective case study of degree programmes in UK universities**

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**English as an international language in higher education:
A collective case study of degree programmes in UK
universities**

Sun Joo Kim

A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

University of Bath

Department of Education

March 2019

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Abstract

In recent years, the shifting sociolinguistic realities of English have been challenging L1 English hegemony in English language education. In today's notion of English as an international language (EIL), diversity is the underlying element that is respected and utilised rather than to be moulded into unified forms for effective communication (Canagarajah, 2015; Pennycook, 2009). In the context of higher education, however, L1 English as a default academic lingua franca is still a deep-rooted idea, particularly in academic writing and publishing (Lillis & Curry, 2010; Seidlhofer, 2012). With the growing importance of internationalisation of higher education (IHE), the scholars and researchers emphasised the need for recognising the importance of the contexts of language (Lillis & Turner, 2001; McGrath & Kaufhold, 2016; Murray & Nallaya, 2016) and linguistic diversity (Canagarajah, 2013; Horner, Lu, Royster, & Trimbur, 2011; Leung, Lewkowicz, & Jenkins, 2016) in academic discourse. Yet, prior research in EIL in academic settings has mainly focused on the experiences and perspectives of L2 English students while those of lecturers were rarely investigated although they are at the front line of the internationalisation phenomenon.

This study looked at the use of English from academics' perspectives by investigating the conceptualisation of appropriate academic English use in three broad disciplines: engineering, science and social science. The data were mainly drawn from in-depth, vignette and stimulated recall interviews of eight academics who were teaching either undergraduate honours or postgraduate taught programmes in three UK universities, as well as from the documents that provided background information of each programme. The findings of the study show that the use of disciplinary conventions and the level of intelligibility played an important role in the participants' judgement of the appropriate academic English use, which was greatly influenced by their particular disciplinary and institutional communities of practice respectively. The findings also indicated that the lack of systematic support on internationalising pedagogic practice may result in the inconsistency of academics' approaches to incorporating intercultural and sociolinguistic awareness into their practice.

The study provides the implications and suggestions for further research for academics and universities to improve their competitiveness in the market, where the diversity of culture and English is greatly valued.

List of abbreviations

APEC	Asian Pacific Economic Cooperation
ASEAN	The Association of Southeast Asian Nations
ASU	Academic Support Unit
CofP	Communities of Practice
EAP	English for academic purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EIL	English as an international language
ELF	English as a lingua franca
ELT	English language teaching
EMI	English as a medium of instruction
ENL	English as a Native Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
GA	General American
IDI	In-depth Interview
IHE	Internationalisation of higher education
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PMI	Prime Minister's Initiative
PSU	Professional Support Unit
RP	Received Pronunciation
SAE	Standard American English
SDU	Staff Development Unit
SLW	Second Language Writing
SRI	Stimulated recall Interview
VI	Vignette Interview
WE	World Englishes

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Aims and scope of the study

There has been considerable discussion about the use of English for international communication in the field of applied linguistics over the past few decades. Particularly with the rapidly globalising economy, many debates in the literature have been waged concerning the native ideology (Pennycook, 1994; Phillipson, 1992; Seidlhofer, 2012) and the western-centred approach in English language teaching (Canagarajah, 1999; Cogo, 2012; Kumaravadivelu, 2012). Today, the cultural traits in English use are no longer considered errors that should be ‘corrected’ while the notion of English as an international language (EIL) puts more emphasis on the negotiation of meaning and mutual understanding rather than conforming to L1 English speakers’ norms. Nevertheless, in academia where written language has a central place, conformity to the norms of ‘Standard English’ (either British or American) is still valued in academic discourse practices in many universities across the world (Wingate, 2018). A number of studies on English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and Academic literacies have addressed this issue from both theoretical and empirical perspectives, thus providing some useful insights for developing approaches that recognise the contexts of language and linguistic diversity in teaching academic English skills (Dunworth, Drury, Kralik, & Moore, 2014; Fenton-Smith, Humphreys, Walkinshaw, Michael, & Lobo, 2017; Hyland, 2003; Tribble & Wingate, 2013). However, the results of those studies, as Wingate and Tribble (2012) argue, have not succeeded in making any significant change to the long-established practice of the academic English user community.

Even though the relevance of the current practices of academic English to contemporary global perspectives is still in question, with the increasing importance of IHE, the status of English as an international academic language is more salient than ever before. In recent years, internationalisation has become an inevitable strategy for universities to remain globally competitive while a considerable amount of literature has been published on using English as a medium of instruction (EMI) as a key international strategy (Macaro, 2017). However, much of the existing research has focused on the internationalisation of non-Anglophone contexts. It is perhaps not surprising that less attention has been given to the use of English in the universities in Anglophone contexts since EMI is typically perceived as “a phenomenon that occurs in countries where

English is *not* the L1” (Humphreys, 2017, p. 95; emphasis in original). Nonetheless, recent studies point out that the notion of English in the context of IHE needs to be reconceptualised in response to the changing perspective on international students and their contributions to higher education (Baker, 2016; Humphreys, 2017; Jenkins, 2014).

Moreover, a large portion of the literature on the IHE focuses on institutional strategies (Curtis, 2013), students’ experience of internationalisation (Leask & Carroll, 2011), and the internationalisation of curricula (Haigh, 2002). However, only a small number of studies have been attentive to the issues of academics in relation to internationalisation (Fallon & Brown, 1999; Trahar & Hyland, 2011) although they are at the front line of the internationalisation enterprise. Hyland et al. (2008) stress that the attitude and practice of academics could have a significant impact on the direction of internationalisation:

It is our beliefs about learning and teaching that guide the way we work that influence whether we position ‘international students’ as needing to acquire a set of skills to assimilate with the dominant pedagogical approaches or whether we position ourselves – local academics and students – as needing to learn and be open to change. (p. 4)

The aims of this study were to investigate academics’ conceptualisation of ‘the international’ and appropriate English use in the context of internationalisation of UK higher education, and how their understanding of those two concepts influenced their evaluation of students’ English use. To better understand the background of this study, an overview of the changing focus of internationalisation of UK universities and the role which English played in the process are presented in the following sections.

1.2 Internationalisation of higher education (IHE) in the UK

Today, studying abroad has become a common strategy for students wishing to develop intercultural competences and increase employability in globalised labour markets (Pang, 2009; Vande Berg, Paige, & Lou, 2012). A recent report of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2018) indicates that the number of foreign students undertaking higher education programmes worldwide increased by

a staggering 150% between 1999 and 2016. In the meantime, the increasing “educational value associated with a diverse student body” and the considerable financial benefits of international student recruitment for those universities of destination countries have contributed to the rapidly increasing internationalisation trend in the higher education sector (OECD, 2016, p. 329).

The report also indicates that the UK is the second most popular destination for international students (OECD, 2018). The UK has a long story of internationalisation in the education sector, partly because of its colonial past (Walker, 2014). The aim and focus of its IHE have constantly changed to meet the demands of global economy, but it was the Prime Minister’s Initiative (PMI) launched by Tony Blair that highlighted the importance of higher education “as an export sector and its contribution to GDP” (Walker, 2014, p. 334). In this project, the UK Government aimed to increase the number of international students by 75,000 between 1999 and 2005, but exceeded its goal by over 60%. Reinforced by this successful outcome, the Government launched the second phase of PMI in 2006, investigating heavily in marketing and student recruitment to attract an additional 100,000 international students by 2011 (Hyland et al., 2008; Trahar & Hyland, 2011). This second phase of PMI also extended its focus from the number of international students to “ensuring the quality of the student experience” (Clark, 2006, p. 80). In practice, however, internationalisation was mainly driven by “income generation for cash-strapped higher education institutes” (Haigh, 2008, p. 427). Especially with declining government funding, more and more UK universities aimed for high fee-paying international students to compensate for their financial losses (MacLeod, 2005; Walker, 2014). Thereby educators and researchers raised concerns about the diminishing educational value in higher education institutions’ internationalisation strategy (De Vita & Case, 2003).

The growing diversity of students’ cultural backgrounds also posed new challenges which mainly arose from different learning styles and expectations of international students (De Vita, 2001; G. Hall & Sung, 2009; Wang, 2007). There are views that the diverse academic traditions should be recognised and respected rather than perceived as an issue which needs to be standardised in accordance with “the dominant pedagogical approaches” (Trahar & Hyland, 2011, p. 624; see also Haigh, 2008;

Warwick & Moogan, 2013). Nevertheless, Bartell (2003) suggests that in many cases, universities tend to take a figurative approach rather than a systematic strategy to internationalisation by making a few superficial changes. In the meantime, Byram (2018) and Yemini (2015) state that there is the issue of lack of a clear definition of 'internationalisation' in the context of IHE.

Gacel-Ávila (2005) argues that the contemporary global society desires individuals who are capable of understanding the complex and multidimensional aspects of human nature and interaction, which demand a high level of cognitive and critical thinking skills. Thus, she recommends that universities may need to focus on helping students to develop a *global consciousness*, which she defines as “comprehension of and receptivity to foreign cultures, and the availability of certain knowledge of, and information about, socioeconomic concerns and ecology” (Gacel-Ávila, 2005, p. 123). Yet, as Trahar and Hyland (2011) point out, it is not easy to take perspectives “beyond the boundaries shaped by our own contextually situated life stories” (Turniansky, Tuval, Mansur, Barak, & Gidron, 2009, p. 40). Meanwhile, according to Byram (2018), some argue that it is universities' responsibility to ensure their graduates leave the institution with the skills and knowledge required in a “globalised economy following ‘Western’ principles” (p. 151) as well as intercultural competence.

Moreover, there are also challenges related to academics' new role in dealing with culturally diverse students in their teaching and assessment (Warwick & Moogan, 2013). Despite the increasing emphasis on teaching quality and student experience in current internationalisation strategy of UK universities, there is lack of “support, resources and recognition for innovative teaching practices in environment that are culturally complex” (Hyland et al., 2008, p. 4; see also Harman, 2005; Leask, 2009). A number of researchers point out that academic staff play a crucial role in the implementation of university's internationalisation, but only recently have studies shed light on academics and their issues associated with IHE (Leask & Carroll, 2011; Murray & McConachy, 2018; Sanderson, 2011; Teekens, 2000). Lecturers may have expertise in their subject area, but it does not necessarily mean that they also have competence in internationalising their teaching practice. In fact, in the UK, how academics teach and

assess their students remains “British to its core” (Haigh, 2009, p. 272), but it is rarely a subject of critical reflection, as Trahar and Hyland (2011) address as follows:

The striving for self-actualisation and learning autonomy that pervades higher education discourse is often presented unproblematically as if there were shared understanding of the concepts ... the very process by which we claim to teach and assess learners is grounded in particular knowledges that are rarely exposed to critical scrutiny (p. 627).

In this regard, Ryan and Viete (Ryan & Viete, 2009) propose a “thirdspace pedagogy”, a concept developed by Kostogriz, which encourages language practitioners to perceive “any learning environment as the heteroglossic space” as well as to recognise differences as “mutually enriching, by rejecting any form of ethnocentrism and exclusion” (Kostogriz, 2005, p. 204). They argue that academics would better understand their position and role in the IHE by critically examining their own values and practices in academic discourse. With the similar perspective, Sanderson (2011) suggests seven dimensions of internationalised teaching practice that academics should be aware of “to operate successfully in the contemporary workplace” (p. 665), in this case a university aspires to be an international institution.

Table 1. Seven dimensions of internationalised teaching practice (reproduced from Sanderson, 2011, pp. 665-666)

- Have some basic knowledge of educational theory
- Incorporate internationalised content into subject material
- Have a critical appreciation of one’s own culture and its assumptions
- Have some knowledge of other countries and cultures, but a preference for being open to and appreciating other worldviews.
- Use universal teaching strategies to enhance the learning experiences of all students
- Understand the way one’s academic discipline and its related profession are structured in a range of countries
- Understand the international labour market in relation to one’s academic discipline

This critical approach to academics’ pedagogical practice also involves our way of using English in an academic setting, but as Jenkins (2014) highlights, the use of English in the

internationalisation strategy of UK universities is vastly oriented towards L1 speaker norms.

1.3 The role of English in the internationalisation of higher education (IHE)

The increasing demand for higher education and economic benefits of international students has resulted in many universities across the world actively adopting EMI (OECD, 2014; Shohamy, 2012). Particularly in Europe, largely driven by the Bologna Process Declaration (1999), the number of degree programmes taught in English has increased substantially in recent years to the point that internationalisation and EMI have become inextricably linked to each other (Dearden, 2014; Jenkins, 2014). In a recent follow-up of their previous studies, Wächter and Maiworm (2014) report that a rapid expansion of the use of EMI in Europe is continuously led by higher education institutions in Netherlands, Germany and Nordic countries. Also, in Asia, the increasing EMI provision at university level has become evident under the influence of two key developments: the Association of Southeast Asian Nations' (ASEAN) project that aimed to develop a Common Space for Higher Education which involved 6,500 higher education institutions in 2008, and the Asian Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) summit which sought to improve staff and student mobility across universities of its member countries in 2012 (Dang, 2015; Kirkpatrick, 2017; Walkinshaw, Fenton-Smith, & Humphreys, 2017). For example, in China, the Ministry of Education requires universities to provide 5-10 % of undergraduate programmes to be taught in English or other foreign languages (Hu & McKay, 2012). Also, both Japanese and Korean governments launched initiatives, such as the 'Global 30' scheme and 'Study Korea 2020 Project' respectively, which provided financial support to universities offering EMI programmes, aiming to attract international students and promote IHE (Hino, 2017; Jon, Lee, & Byun, 2014). Likewise, post-colonial contexts such as Hong Kong, Malaysia and the Philippines have vigorously expanded EMI courses to promote their countries as an international education hub despite contestation of researchers and practitioners that such policies would exacerbate the issues of poor educational achievement and devaluation of the local language (Kirkpatrick, 2014).

Despite this rapid expansion of EMI in higher education, however, the desirability of EMI programmes is still a contentious issue amongst educators and policymakers

(Coleman, 2006). For instance, Shohamy (2012) points out that institutions often give precedence to economic gains over educational benefits in their implementation process of EMI while Dearden (2014) suggests in her large-scale study on worldwide EMI phenomenon that there is a lack of “global understanding of the aims and purpose of EMI” (p. 2) amongst the parties involved in this endeavour. A number of studies also indicate that the majority of universities lack the explicit instruction for both academics and students to effectively engage with their EMI policies (Hamid, Nguyen, & Baldauf Jr., 2013; Kirkpatrick, 2014, 2017; Rose & Mckinley, 2018; Tamtam, Gallagher, Olabi, & Naher, 2012). Moreover, there has been a call for critical consideration of the strong orientation towards L1 English in the current EMI policies which may lead to “domain loss for other languages of academia” (Baker & Hüttner, 2017, p. 503) by perpetuating the hegemonic status of Anglophone varieties of English in global academic discourse (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2014; Jenkins, 2014; Mok, 2007). Also, researchers such as Hu and McKay (2012), and Phillipson (2006) report that the growing emphasis on international collaborative research and publishing in international journals place further pressure on academics while local research and publications are “not be counted as internationally important” regardless of their access to a wider audience or potential impact on local economy and society (Mok, 2007, p. 446). Consequently, recent studies began to pay more attention to the ways to move forward from merely adopting US or UK style practices to helping lecturers try various pedagogical methods for multicultural classes in terms of the internationalisation of curriculum and pedagogy (Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Cots, 2013; O’Dowd, 2018).

In Anglophone contexts, however, the notion of EMI is rarely considered in relation to the IHE since English has always been a language of instruction and everyday interaction (Baker & Hüttner, 2017; Humphreys, 2017). To date, many IHE studies, particularly those in the UK context, have taken a critical perspective on the Eurocentric or Anglophone-centric curriculum (Haigh, 2008; Lunn, 2008) and the attitude towards international students (Luxon & Peel, 2009; Ryan & Viete, 2009) whereas much less attention was paid to the language (i.e. English). Nevertheless, the growing complexity of the linguistic landscape in Anglophone universities means that the use of English needs to be considered beyond providing support for the English language improvement of non-Anglophone students (Baker, 2016; Jenkins, 2011, 2014). We

must also engage in critical reflection on established teaching and assessment practice (Leung et al., 2016; Mauranen, Perez-Llantada, & Swales, 2010; Murray, 2018).

1.4 Significance of the study

The literature indicates that the current notion of English in the context of IHE need a thorough reconsideration and critical appraisal to ensure that they are in line with what we aspire to be as global citizens today. Given that only a limited number of studies have explored this issue in the context of UK universities, the findings of this study will add to the existing body of knowledge on English as an international academic language in an Anglophone context. Yet, the implications of the study will be of interest in universities in both Anglophone and non-Anglophone countries, considering the ever-diversifying student and staff body, and growing demands for intercultural awareness in academic practice.

Moreover, in contrast to the majority of studies on internationalisation of higher education and academic English, the current study focuses on academics and their understanding of language use (i.e. English) and internationalism from the views of not only disciplinary but also institutional Communities of Practice (CofP). Particular light was shed on the possible connection between EIL and IHE by exploring two slightly different concepts: academics' conceptualisation of 'appropriate English use' and 'the international' within their institutions and disciplines. These concepts were, then, examined in relation to their evaluation of students' English use in their programmes. In this way, although with small samples, the study provides useful insight into the complexity of academic discourse and practice as well as evidence of practical challenges that academics encounter in their practice in the multicultural context.

It is hoped that the findings of the study will make a resourceful contribution to the development of pragmatic implications for practitioners and policymakers to remain competitive in today's' global education market by adapting their practices to the world defined by transnationalism where the diversity of culture and English is valued.

1.5 Structure of the thesis

The thesis comprises five chapters which investigate the construct of appropriateness in relation to English use in the context of internationalisation of higher education. It focuses on academics' conceptualisations and perspectives of appropriate English use in their disciplines. The first chapter, which is this introduction, gives a brief overview of the growing trend of internationalisation in the field of higher education, and the role of English in its process as background and context to the study. Chapter 2 lays out the theoretical and conceptual framework of this study by providing a review of the literature on communities of practice, and a summary of the existing literature on English usage in both academic and non-academic contexts. Chapter 3 details the methodology and research design, including limitations and ethical considerations of this study. This chapter is also where I consider my position as an EAP teacher and a researcher, and reflect upon my own subjectivity which may have had an impact on the interpretation of the data. Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study, starting with the background information of each case. The findings of individual cases are analysed and interpreted to investigate academics' conceptualisation of appropriate English use in the universities pursuing internationalisation. It is followed by cross-case findings where the findings from all eight cases are integrated, and three key themes that emerged from further analysis are explored. Finally, Chapter 5 answers the research questions and discusses the key findings, referring back to the issues related to internationalisation of higher education from Chapter 1, as well as to the theoretical frameworks from Chapter 2. The thesis concludes with a set of implications for practitioners and the development of the internationalisation of higher education, including suggestions for further research in this area.

1.6 Key terms and definitions

Anglophone

Oxford English Dictionary (2019) defines the term 'Anglophone' as follows:

English-speaking; (also) of or relating to places where English is spoken

Considering the EIL phenomenon today, the geographical indication of 'Anglophone' is no longer limited to countries. However, in this study, the term Anglophone was

deliberately used to refer to the countries where English is spoken as a first language, such as the UK, Ireland, the USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand, for clarity and ease of presentation.

L1 and L2 English speakers

There are a number of terms to describe people who use English as either their first or second language in the literature. The most widely used one would be ‘native/non-native’ English speakers, which was also frequently used by the participants in this study. However, its implicit promotion of Anglophone ideology and underlying deficit view with ‘non-native’ have been criticised by many scholars in the field of applied linguistics (Canagarajah, 1999; Pennycook, 1994; Phillipson, 1992). The L1/ L2 is another often used term, particularly preferred by researchers who would like to avoid the issue of negative connotation associated with the former. In this study, therefore, I used L1 English speakers to refer to those who speak English as their first language whereas L2 English speakers refer to those who use English as an additional language to their first language.

UK and non-UK students

The term ‘international students’ used by the participants during the interviews often referred to two different concepts: 1) L2 English students and 2) non-European students. This is because the majority of support services related to English language skills frequently uses the term ‘international students’ to mean L2 English students while the UK universities generally categorise domicile and other EU national students together in their financial system (mainly for fee-paying purposes). To avoid confusion, I used the following terms in this study:

- UK students: Students who are nationals of UK
- Non-UK students: Students who are from countries outside the UK
- Non-EU students: Students who are from outside the European Union countries regardless of their first language
- Non-EU L2 English students: Students who are from outside the European Union countries, and not using English as their first language

Academic Skills Unit, Professional Skills Unit and Staff Development Unit

Some of the student support services discussed by the participants during the interviews were either associated with the particular programme or were providing distinctive services which could be recognisable. Therefore, to ensure the confidentiality of this study, I used the following terms to refer to different support services:

- **Academic Skills Unit (ASU):** The division which provides support and training services with regard to academic skills, including but not limited to:
 - Academic writing
 - Critical reading and writing
 - English language skills
 - Presentation skills
- **Professional Skills Unit (PSU):** The division which provides support and services regarding professional skills including but not limited to:
 - Career information
 - Psychometric tests
 - Writing CVs
 - Job interview skills
- **Staff Development Unit (SDU):** The division which provides support and services regarding professional development, including but not limited to:
 - Teaching and support learning
 - Curriculum design
 - Research management

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a comprehensive overview of theoretical and empirical works on English as an International Language (EIL) and Academic English usage in higher education. It particularly focuses on the literature which examines the aspect of using English through the Communities of Practice (CofP) lens. The chapter begins with a brief summary of globalisation of English language and change of attitudes toward use of different Englishes in non-academic contexts is presented. It focuses on some distinctive features of World Englishes (WE) and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), as some key aspects of controversial issues in the notion of EIL in language teaching. At the end of this section, the rationale for using EIL instead of other terminology (e.g. ELF) in this study is provided. It is followed by section 2.3 where the relationship between language and academic community is explored through a sociolinguistic perspective of CofP. In this section, the norms and value attached to academic English is examined by reviewing the literature on three key approaches to academic writing: genre, academic literacies, and ELFA approaches. It particularly focuses on academics' perception on 'appropriate' writing which leads to the topic of this study: the concept of 'appropriate' English use in the context of Internationalisation of Higher Education (IHE). The chapter concludes with the two main research questions derived from the literature reviewed for this study.

2.2 English Language and Global Communities

2.2.1 The spread and development of English as a global lingua franca

Modern English is the result of the fusion of a number of tribal migrations and invasions. From the language of Anglo-Saxons (Germanic languages) to Norman French, English language faced extinction several times, but has successfully survived by using its great ability to adapt. In fact, this language-fusing process has never stopped; the only difference is that now it is not just an inward process within the British Isles anymore. Migrations and colonisations are two major events that initiated the spread of modern English outwards from the British Isles. A large-scale migration to North America and Australasia resulted in exporting the diverse dialects of English language, which were eventually "altered in response to the changed and changing sociolinguistic contexts in

which migrants found themselves” (Jenkins, 2015, p. 6). Through colonisation and post-colonisation, these newly formed mother tongue Englishes were transported to Asia and Africa and had a significant impact on the local socio-cultural and educational frameworks. Yet, these Englishes also integrated with the local dialects and developed into a number of other English varieties (Bolton & Kachru, 2006; Mufwene, 2015). Over the last few decades, the global spread of English has gained its momentum from the advances in technology and increasing global mobility and, as a result, it is one of the most widely spoken languages for international communication today. Nonetheless, the perception and usage of English around the world are, again, changing and being reshaped by its users which has given increasing attention to the linguistic and functional diversity of English language in the various fields of social sciences (Canagarajah, 2007a, 2007b; Crystal, 2000; also see Pennycook, 1994; Ricento, 2015; Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000).

2.2.1.1 From World Englishes (WE) to English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)

Kachru’s (1985) notion of World Englishes (henceforth WE) and the Three Circles model have provided a significant and useful basis for the framework of English as an international language (henceforth EIL) and English as a lingua franca (henceforth ELF) today. In his Three Circles model, Kachru categorises the users of English into three groups: inner, outer and expanding circle. The Inner Circle includes countries where English is the first language (e.g. the UK, Ireland, the USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand) while the Outer Circle includes countries that are mostly former colonies of the UK or the US where English is used in major institutions such as government and schools (e.g. India, Nigeria, Singapore, etc.). The Expanding Circle consists of countries where English is taught as a foreign language but does not play any official role in domestic institutions (e.g. China, Russia, Saudi Arabia, etc.).

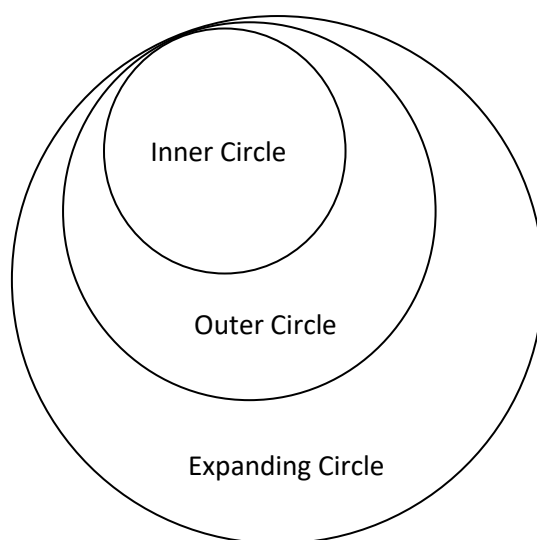


Figure 1. Kachru's Three Circles Model of World Englishes (adapted from Yano, 2001)

Kachru's work and the Three Circles model have highlighted a variety of English created by its users and raised the issue of the Anglo-centric idea of 'international', which is "interpreted as the distribution of native-speaker Standard English rather than the way English has changed to meet international needs" (Seidlhofer, 2009, p. 237). However, even from a Kachruvian perspective, the Expanding Circle English is considered having no distinctive features as those of Outer Circle English since it heavily relies on English of the Inner Circle countries. In his later work, Kachru (2005) clarifies that the native speaker-centeredness in his Three Circle model is to represent "the historical source of English language" in its spread process, and the historical and social contexts of language use in all circles are "integral parts of world Englishes" (p. 219). Nonetheless, the variation of English in the Expanding Circle remained regarded as 'errors' or 'fossilisation' from both Inner and Outer Circles unlike the noticeable progress in the perception of nativised English varieties (Seidlhofer, 2009). Although this myopic view is what exactly Kachru criticised in earlier phases of WE research, Kachruvian perspective on Expanding Circle English disregards the Expanding circle English users' agency and identity in international communication. Consequently, a number of scholars have criticised the Kachruvian approach as limited and outdated (Bruthiaux, 2003; Jenkins, 2009; Yano, 2001). For instance, Kirkpatrick (2008) pointed out that the distinction between Outer Circle and Expanding Circle is not applicable in many cases these days. Also from a similar perspective, Pennycook (2009) argues that the nation-oriented framework of WE overlooks the contextual variants beyond the national and

social borders that are crucial to understand a constant process of semiotic reconstruction in English as an international language.

In particular, ELF researchers take the view that English used in international communication stands “neither on hegemonic versions of central English nor on nationally defined new Englishes” (Pennycook, 2009, p. 195). Their attempts to characterise and distinguish ELF from English as a Native Language (henceforth ENL) can be divided into two broad approaches: 1) focusing on capturing distinctive features that emerge in ELF communication, and 2) seeking to explain the ongoing negotiation of English in international communication (Maley, 2010; Pennycook, 2009). The former approach has shown great progress in the area of codification of ELF, for example in work such as the Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (see Seidlhofer, 2002), the corpus of English in Academic Settings (see Mauranen, 2003), and the Asian Corpus of ELF (see Kirkpatrick, 2010). However, some scholars consider such codification of ELF to be unfeasible concerning that its speaker community is constantly shifting and flowing (Mollin, 2006; Prodromou, 2008). Yet, ELF researchers contend that the conventional idea of ‘variety’ and ‘community’ has extended beyond physical boundaries with the technological advancement today (Canagarajah, 2007a; Cogo, 2012; Jacquemet, 2005). Thus, Seidlhofer (2007) suggests that an ELF user community can be understood through Wenger’s (1998, p. 73) notion of CofP, which is characterised by taking part in “joint enterprise”, mutually engaging in shared practices, and making use of their “shared repertoire”.

Nevertheless, their focus on the corpus of ELF is also criticised for a number of reasons. Particularly at the early stage of ELF research, the codification was considered inevitable to make ELF “a feasible, acceptable and respected alternative to ENL in appropriate contexts of use” (Seidlhofer, 2001, p. 150). With regard to this, Pennycook (2009) warns that if the main concern of ELF research is to create an alternative to ENL standards, it would be open to criticism “for being potentially reductive and prescriptive” (p. 200). Others also concern that such an approach carries a risk of stripping of any cultural influences from ELF by establishing “a single (or a limited form of) Lingua Franca Core for common use among speakers in the Outer and Expanding circles” (Rubdy & Saraceni, 2006b, p. 13) while its attempt to explain ELF under the conventional idea of

grammar and language norms can be seen as underrating the aspect of individual language knowledge in ELF communication (Canagarajah, 2007a). In response to these criticisms, Cogo (2012) asserts that ELF researchers' interest in "some of the forms that emerge in ELF interaction in specific communities" (p. 99) is to understand the processes of ELF in communication rather than to identify its core features. In the meantime, Baker and Jenkins (2015) state that current ELF research has moved away from language features and toward practices of English in global communication.

2.2.1.2 *Beyond the monolingual lens of English*

This shifting focus from linguistic to social elements has enabled researchers to explore ELF beyond the language-as-a-system view (Canagarajah, 2007a). In particular, ELF researchers focus on the aspect of language as a social construction which entails the norms and values of a specific context and time period (Jenkins, 2015; Seidlhofer, 2011). They argue that the current understanding of English needs a conceptual adaptation to new ways of language construction created by the recent global changes (Pennycook, 2007). For example, inspired by Yano's (2001) cylindrical model of English use, Pennycook (2009) introduces a 3D transtextual model of English use to highlight the importance of contextual use of English in international communication.

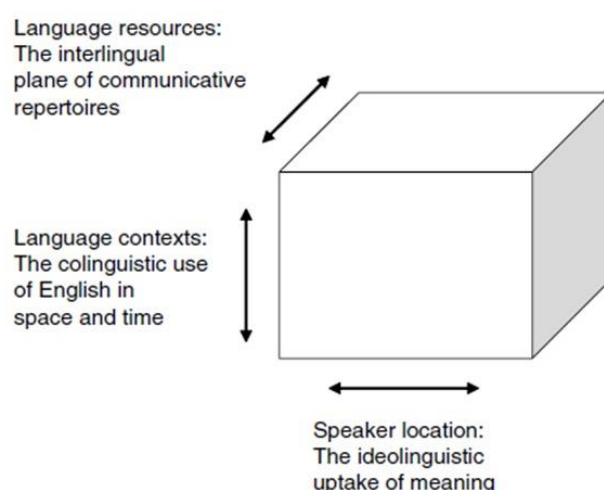


Figure 2. A 3D Transtextual model of English Use (Pennycook, 2009, p.204)

In this model, Pennycook looks at English use from three different perspectives simultaneously. The top plane represents language resources, including all varieties of

English. By removing the boundaries among nations, it emphasises that it is necessary to “escape from the circles, tubes and boxes based on nations that have so bedevilled world Englishes and linguistics more generally” in order to understand the contextual use of language in reality (Pennycook, 2009, p. 204). The vertical plane focuses on the contexts of language, yet it also discards Yano’s view that English as a Foreign Language (EFL) tends to be acrolectal while English as a Second Language (ESL) to be more meso- or basilectal. Instead, it acknowledges the registers of the community of practice, including non-verbal ones such as cyclists’ and divers’ hand signals. The bottom plane, which Pennycook calls “the ideolinguistic dimension”, looks at the contexts of language users “where English is one of many languages, a code useful for certain activities, a language connected to certain desire and ideologies” (2009, p. 205). With all three dimensions, the model reflects the idea of English in global communication as a fluid system that is constantly reconstructed as individuals encounter different contexts and semiotic resources (Canagarajah, 2007a, 2007b; Seidlhofer, 2009).

From a similar perspective, Horner et al. (2011) propose a translingual approach to move forward from the traditional approach which regards differences in language as a barrier to overcome in communication. Although the notion of ‘translingual’ in sociolinguistics could vary depending on the scholarly orientations (Canagarajah, 2017; also see Blommaert, 2010; Garcia & Wei, 2014; Sultana, Dovchin, & Pennycook, 2015), the term ‘translingual’ or ‘translingualism’ used in this study mainly refers to the following definition of Canagarajah (2013, p. 8):

The term translingual conceives of language relationships in more dynamic terms. The semiotic resources in one’s repertoire or in society interact more closely, become part of an integrated resource, and enhance each other. The languages mesh in transformative ways, generating new meanings and grammars.

From this perspective, in particular, the language knowledge of multiple language users is considered to be “grounded in and emergent from language use in concrete social activity for specific purposes that are tied to specific communities of practice” (Hall, Cheng, & Carlson, 2006, p. 235). Moreover, this notion of translingualism is also distinguished from the general understanding of ‘multilingualism’, which was often

described as “parallel monolingualism” (Heller, 1999, p. 5). Lee (2017) argues that multilingualism has been associated with “the ability to use multiple languages in an ostensibly pure, hygienic form” (p. 6), and therefore the language proficiency of an individual is expected to be of the same as a parallel monolingual rather than a multilingual. In the translingual approach, however, ‘diversity’ is the underlying element that is respected and utilised rather than moulded into unified forms for effective communication, and the mutual intelligibility between speakers is achieved by monitoring and negotiating each other's linguistic knowledge and pragmatic conventions during the conversation (Canagarajah, 2007a, 2013; also see Hall, Cheng, & Carlson, 2006; Otsuji & Pennycook, 2010).

Language constantly changes by nature; as Seidlhofer (2011, p. 88) writes, it has been “adapted and altered to suit the changed circumstances of its use”, which often results in undermining what have been considered appropriate and legitimate language practice. Therefore, it may be inevitable that such change is not welcomed by all its users, as will be discussed in the next subsection.

2.2.2 EIL debates: the issue of legitimacy

There has been an ongoing debate about the legitimacy of English varieties outside the British Isles (Jenkins, 2007). The most quoted dispute over this subject would be Kachru-Quirk debate published in *English Today* in the early 1990s. Quirk (1990, p. 7) insisted that “the natives have radically different internalizations” and dismissed the idea of ‘non-native’ Englishes as adequate English varieties or any attempt to institutionalise them. In response to Quirk, Kachru (1991, p. 4) argued that Quirk’s view fails to recognise the sociolinguistic reality, which is the “pluricentricity and multi-identities of English”. Thus, he called for a paradigm shift in order to understand “the linguistic innovations and creativity” in English varieties across the world (Kachru, 1991, p. 5).

Nevertheless, this debate is now well over two decades old, and both proponents and opponents have moved away from the dichotomous views of native versus non-native in terms of adequacy of English varieties. In fact, there is a general consensus that there is no single standard English today (Kirkpatrick, 2011; Quirk, 1962). However, there are still some key areas of contestation. In particular, intelligibility and social stigmatisation

are at the centre of the criticisms of the current notion of EIL, which are presented in more detail in the following subsections.

2.2.2.1 Intelligibility of EIL

The critics argue that L2 English users rely more on phonological information than contextual information, sometimes even more than their L1 counterparts, to achieve intelligibility in EIL communication (van den Doel, 2007). This view has been supported by the findings of previous studies, which have shown that both L1 and L2 English users rated the speech with Received Pronunciation (RP) and General American (GA) higher than one with foreign accent in intelligibility tests (Major, Fitzmaurice, Bunta, & Balasubramanian, 2002; Szpyra-kozlowska, 2008; Trudgill, 2008; van den Doel, 2006). On the other hand, some critics suggest that English varieties in Outer and Expanding Circles are appropriate only within their own contexts despite its growing importance in sociolinguistic studies (Kuo, 2006; Maley, 2010). This is because, according to Killickaya (2009), the words and collocations in those varieties are highly context-specific, and therefore speakers' different L1s and cultural backgrounds could cause more confusions and communication breakdowns in international communication.

However, Crystal (2003) reports that RP in its pure form, although it still holds a prestigious position, is only spoken by "less than 3 per cent of the British people" (p. 365). In particular, some regional accents in Britain, such as Edinburgh Scots and Yorkshire, have established prestige and "are being used in settings which would have been inconceivable twenty years ago" (2001, p. 60). Also, concerning American English, Fromkink, Rodman and Hyams (2014, p. 289) claim that Standard American English (SAE) is an idealised dialect that no one can clearly define:

SAE is an idealization. Nobody speaks this dialect; and if somebody did, we would not know it, because SAE is not defined precisely (like most dialects, none of which are easy to clarify). ... SAE was once represented by the language used by national news broadcasters, but today many of them speak a regional dialect or style of English that is not universally accepted as "standard".

Moreover, a considerable number of hitherto criticisms have narrowly focused on phonology and syntax, which are the elements that constitute intelligibility, rather than intelligibility itself. However, EIL researchers argue that “intelligibility is not speaker or listener-centered but is interactional between speaker and hearer” (Smith & Nelson, 1985, p. 333; also see Jenkins et al., 2011 Kirkpatrick et al., 2008; Levis, 2005). That is, L2 English users may not have an equal access to contextual information as L1 English users, but they achieve mutual intelligibility in conversation through complicated process of monitoring and negotiating each other's linguistic knowledge and pragmatic conventions as discussed in the previous section (Deterding & Kirkpatrick 2006; Field 2005; Hall et al. 2006). Also, Canagarajah suggests such co-constructing and negotiating the meaning is not an exclusive aspect of EIL communication in his interview with Rubdy and Saraceni (2006a, p. 208) :

I think speakers of any language already negotiate their difference in actual interactions of communication. If not socio-lectal difference, we all have to negotiate at least idio-lectal differences all the time.

A similar perspective is shared by Crystal (2001) who points out that the intelligibility issues caused by regional dialects among L1 English speakers in the UK are often resolved by simple alteration, such as adapting the speed of speech or vocabulary, which make them “no more problematic for linguistic theory than, say, occupational varieties such as legal or scientific” (p. 45).

There may be no universally agreed definition of intelligibility or the way to measure it, but, according to Pickering (2006), Smith and Nelson’s (1985, p. 334) tripartite conceptualisation of intelligibility is generally accepted within the field of intelligibility research:

- (1) intelligibility: word/utterance recognition,
- (2) comprehensibility: word/utterance meaning (locutionary force),
- (3) interpretability: meaning behind word/utterance (illocutionary force)

Smith and Nelson (1985) stress that these three concepts should not be used interchangeably because each one plays a different role in different weight in the entirety of intelligibility. This approach suggests that it is essential to consider “matters of meaning” (comprehensibility and interpretability) along with “matters of form” (intelligibility) in order to fully understand the intelligibility of EIL (Jenkins, 2000, p. 71).

2.2.2.2 Social stigmatisation

Another criticism is that the EIL approaches often underrate the issue of acceptability in English discourse. Sobkowiak (2005, p. 139) argues that “correct native (-like) pronunciation is not only a question of communicative pragmatics, but also of self-image” as speakers’ pronunciation is often taken as an indicator of their social identity, particularly in Europe. The findings from the previous intelligibility studies also have shown that ‘non-native’ pronunciations that did not intervene the intelligibility of speech are still perceived as ‘unpleasant’ and ‘irritating’ by both L1 and L2 speakers of English (Markham, 1997; Scheuer, 2015; van den Doel, 2007).

Moreover, Timmis (2002) points out that “there is still some desire among students to conform to native-speaker norms” (p. 248) regardless of whether they expect to use English primarily with L1 English user or not. The findings of his study propose that many teachers acknowledge the need to move away from ENL-norm dependency in English language teaching, but L1 English norms are still regarded as “a benchmark of perfection” (p. 243) by most students and teachers in the field of English language teaching (ELT).

In the meantime, Scheuer (2008, p. 112) criticises the supporters of EIL for becoming too carried away with their own “ultra-democratic and extremely politically correct manifestos” and overlooking learners’ voices. From her perspective, EIL approaches are about “teaching foreigners only enough English – pronunciation-wise - to let them survive within the EIL community” which often results in them being “not taken seriously in professional exchanges, and often come across as unintelligent” (p. 126). Although there is general consent that it is unfortunate that those ‘acceptable’ forms are often equated with either American or British English, many researchers and educators doubt whether EIL-based pedagogical models could ensure providing all necessary

knowledge to help students meet the demands of academia and society (Sobkowiak ,2005; Szpyra-Kozłowska, 2005; Prodromou, 2007).

In particular, Kuo (2006) criticises that EIL approaches disregard the reality in the classroom by primarily focusing on comprehensibility and communicative features as if English is “entirely and fundamentally an instrument of [international] communication” (p. 215). She further explains the problem by arguing that:

Rather than being the language used by and among non-native speakers in relatively stress-free and accuracy-unimportant settings, English has often been learned as an important school subject under the pressure to sustain accuracy and to provide evidence of proficiency. As such, an appropriate pedagogical model has to be able to satisfy demands ranging from minimum intelligibility, through general accuracy and fluency, up to comparable proficiency to that of a native speaker, rather than drawing exclusively or even primarily on the notion of international intelligibility. (p. 219)

Mackenzie (2003) also suggests that English has been playing a role of gatekeeper in both intra- and inter-national educational and job market, and therefore it may not easy for international students to survive with EIL alone in academic and professional contexts where typically any unconformities to L1 English norms have a negative impact on the assessment of their performances.

From a similar perspective, scholars in the field of Second Language Writing (SLW) disagree on the idea of a translingual approach being a new pedagogy in English language education. Although they acknowledge that the usefulness of a translingual pedagogy in challenging the dominant language ideologies, it is still considered inadequate for helping students improve their language proficiency, particularly at the early stage of learning (Atkinson et al., 2015), or meeting students’ needs to learn “standardized language varieties” which typically requires for their academic success (Ruecker, 2014, p. 116). Like those critics of EIL approaches to English pronunciation and spoken intelligibility, the SLW scholars also recognise the necessity of critical appraisal of current practice in English language teaching, but also stress that an inevitable reality of

the social inequalities that are closely tied to English use in academic settings should not be overlooked.

However, Rury (2005, p. 4) reminds us that the relationship between education reform and social change should be seen as a two-way relationship: that is, education can be “both as a causal agent and as an aspect of life that has shifted because of other social forces”. From this point of view, Canagarajah (2015, p. 425) refutes that the translingual pedagogy makes students “aware of standard English as an ideological construct” and enables them to “renegotiate its norms” by critically engaging with such a privileged standardised variety of English.

Moreover, Seidlhofer (2009) points out that the premises in many of the criticisms of EIL are either explicitly or implicitly based on the idea that ‘E’ in EIL is, or should be, the very language used in Anglophone countries. Numerous scholars and researchers have raised serious concerns about linguistic imperialism and political economy of English language education for over two decades, yet the hegemony of ‘Standard English’ has not been dismantled but rather strengthened (Jenkins, 2014; also see Milroy & Milroy, 2012; Pennycook, 1994; Phillipson, 1992, 2009). Kumaravadivelu (2012) also supports this view by arguing that a large number of textbooks used for learning and teaching English across the world still “embody Western cultural values, beliefs, and attitudes often presenting stereotypical pictures that valorize Western societies” (p. 20). Although the recent trend of intercultural-friendly textbooks may indicate the publishing industry’s acknowledgement of the on-going criticisms of Western-oriented knowledge and practices in ELT, the findings of language assessment studies indicate that the native-speaker norms and the native-speaker competence still play a significant role in assessment and evaluation of L2 English speaker performance (Hall, 2014; Johnson & VanBrackle, 2012; Taylor, 2006).

Furthermore, concerning the critics’ emphasis on the familiarity that ‘Standard English’ have constructed across the world, Crystal (2001) warns that such a familiarity is like a double-edged sword as it “breeds content – but also contempt, when it fails to keep pace with social realities” (p. 60). Consequently, people are given very limited choices or no choice at all in terms of the type of English that they could choose to learn. Unlike the

critics' remarks that the supporters of EIL neglect this reality which many students and teachers encounter in their classroom, they not only recognise it but also problematise it. For example, Kumaravadivelu (2006) argues that such a 'Standard English' hegemony should not be tolerated with a grin-and-bear-it attitude by referring to the following Human Development Report of United Nations (UNDP):

There is no more powerful means of "encouraging" individuals to assimilate to a dominant culture than having the economic, social and political returns stacked against their mother tongue. Such assimilation is not freely chosen if the choice is between one's mother tongue and one's future. (2004, p. 33; emphasis in original)

Certainly, the notion of freedom of choice, such as the one suggested by Strawson (1986), should be carefully considered in terms of interpreting students' choice in the context of English language learning:

... there is a fundamental sense in which one has total freedom of choice so long as one has choice at all, however unpleasant the options are. After all, freedom of choice cannot be supposed to involve a completely unrestricted range of options; it is always somehow restricted. (p. 396)

Yet, as Kumaravadivelu (2006) notes, learners' choice made under such circumstances should not be regarded as if they are their genuine voice or needs. On the other hand, Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) point out that many ELT teachers are left without "ideas or suggestions to start implementing necessary changes" (p. 333) despite the great pressure to be critical of current practices that heavily rely on L1 English norms. Therefore, researchers and scholars of EIL call for active engagement in researching material development and instructional strategies that reflect their cultures and experiences (Aquino, 2012; Friedrich, 2012; McKay, 2012a, 2012b).

The central issue that inhibits the practice of EIL is, as Crystal (2001, p. 57) reminds us, the current notion of 'standard' that needs to be reconsidered, not the notion of a standard per se. That is, the appropriation of EIL should be evaluated from the perspective of whether it is proper "for new and different communicative and communal

purposes” rather than on the basis of L1 English norms (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 88). This approach of EIL is in line with the focus of this study, which aims to explore the notion of appropriate academic English within the academic communities of an international context. Moreover, I use EIL (rather than ELF) throughout the current study to bring forward the issue of the term ‘international’ being equated with ‘Anglo-American’ in many contexts, including higher education (Byram, 2018; Chowdhury & Ha, 2014; Seidlhofer, 2012).

2.3 English Language and International Academic Communities

2.3.1 Academic communities of practice

The concept of Communities of Practice (henceforth CoP) has been around for several decades in the field of linguistics (Jucker & Kopaczky, 2013), but it was first made explicit by Lave and Wenger (1991) in their study of situated learning. Its focus on individuals of the community of practice enables researchers to better understand the construction and maintenance of a particular community (Eckert, 2000; Meyerhoff & Strycharz, 2013) while the ambiguity of the terms ‘community’ and ‘practice’ is regarded as “a source of the concept’s reusability allowing it to be reappropriated for different purposes” (Cox, 2005, p. 527).

According to Eckert and Wenger (2005), a community of practice develops ways of doing things through their joint activities which become a guideline to evaluate their members’ action, particularly their competence in the context of learning:

Legitimacy is central to the very construct of community of practice. [...] What counts as competence and by whom is something that the community negotiates over time; indeed, it is this negotiation that defines the community. A community of practice can be defined as an ongoing collective negotiation of a regime of competence, which is neither static nor fully explicit. In this sense, the construct of community of practice ‘politicizes’ the concept of learning by locating it in a social context where the experience of participation – and therefore learning – is always a claim to competence. (p. 583)

In sociolinguistics, therefore, the CofP is considered useful in “the study of situated language use, of language change and of the very process of conventionalization that underlies both” (Eckert, 2006, p. 683). This study also focused on this collective notion of ‘legitimacy’ rather than learning process of a particular CofP, academics.

Hyland (2009, p. 1) stresses that “academic discourse is more than a language used by academics and students. He emphasises the social aspect of academic discourse which not only affects the way that individuals use language, but also constructs the way they “frame problems and understand issues” within their discipline. In their study on academic culture, Becher and Trowler (2001, p. 104) also state that communication is “the life blood of academia” because it is the key influence factor of how to promote new knowledge and establish one’s scholarly reputation. In this perspective, academic discourse is seen as a “carrier of expertise and prestige – the badge of those who possess knowledge and of those who wish to”, and therefore, one’s ideas “must be framed within a context of what is already accepted” to convince the target audience to receive credit for their work (Hyland, 2009, p. 2).

Nevertheless, Cangarajah (2002, p. 55) argues that there are many contextual and individual factors that may affect the way of knowledge construction:

... knowledge construction is contextual. Material, historical, and social conditions governing the community’s life and experience shape it knowledge. In addition to the contextual influences noted above, consider how the following features would influence the author’s perspective on the subject: the social positions of the author, the pundit, and the members of the audience; the ideological shifts in the community; and the recent changes in local political and social conditions.

Trowler (2014) also points out that “disciplines are constantly evolving” (p. 5), and as they continuously collaborate and exchange knowledge with each other, the change to the traditions that have bound the members of disciplinary community in terms of creating and distributing knowledge may be inevitable.

In this study, the term CofP refers to a group of people who engaged in academic teaching and research that is intended to move forward society's knowledge and understandings within a particular discipline. Thus, from this perspective, each participant is an experienced member of their particular disciplinary community of practice where they are bound together by the shared values and expertise. In particular, this broad conceptualisation of the community of practice allows me to explore participants' understanding of academic discourse at disciplinary level, as well as its impact on their approaches to guide their students who bring different cultural and experiential knowledge to the subject area.

2.3.2 The changes and developments of teaching Academic English

English may not be the only language used as a lingua franca of international academic community, but it is certainly unprecedented in the scale and range of its usage across disciplines today (Hitchings, 2011; Godin, 2015). However, increasing cultural and linguistic diversity of students and academic staff created demands for reconsideration of the current practice of academic English language and teaching. In particular, the Anglophone-centred approaches in academic writing have been criticised for perpetuating the ideology of 'Standard English' in the global academic society (Lillis & Curry, 2010; Mauranen et al., 2010). In the meantime, various approaches have suggested to improve cultural and linguistic inclusiveness in academic discourse practices, particularly in terms of writing (Baker, 2016; Lillis & Turner, 2001; Wingate & Tribble, 2012). Mauranen et al (2010, p. 634) suggest that this writing-centredness in academic discourse might be because "it is written work that is primarily assessed and evaluated" both for students and academics to pursue and succeed in higher education. There are three approaches that are commonly considered to have mostly influenced the development of academic writing practice (see Table 2).

Table 2. Three major traditions in EAP (reproduced from Tribble, 2009, pp. 401-403)

Genre Approach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rooted in register analysis (Halliday, McIntosh, & Stevens, 1964) and genre (Halliday & Hasan, 1985) • Focuses on helping students face up to the literacy demands of different disciplinary settings
Composition Studies Approach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rooted in North American liberal arts tradition of teaching a common programme of composition and rhetoric in the first year of university studies • Focuses on helping students to produce formal and 'factual' text organisation.
Academic Literacies (UK)/ Writing in the Disciplines (US) Approach	UK
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developed in response to helping students who would have been excluded from higher education • Focuses on helping students recognise the different positions and identities that individuals in the writing process take up as academic writers and readers
	US
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rooted in Britton's (1983) work on writing as a thinking process and 'Writing across the Curriculum' movement in the US from the 1980s and 1990s • Focuses on the need to change the engagement of disciplinary staff with the linguistic demands they make of students and on the empowerment of students as writers

While each approach focuses on different aspects of academic text production, Tribble (2009) suggested that Genre approach and Academic Literacies are considered to have most influenced the UK academic discourse and practice. Given that the context of this study is higher education institutions in the UK, therefore, this section of my literature review mainly presents the literature concerning academic English teaching from the perspective of a genre approach and academic literacies.

2.3.2.1 *Genre EAP and Academic literacies approaches to academic English teaching*

EAP research has mainly focused on L2 English students, but in genre approach, that both UK and non-UK students are perceived as novice members of academic discourse communities (Tribble & Wingate, 2013). The concept of genre in the current field of EAP is largely built on Swales's (1990) work on genre analysis. According to Swales:

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognised by the expert members of the parent discourse community and thereby constitute the

rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the genre and influences and constrains choice of content and style. (1990, p. 58)

Although Swales acknowledges that this definition is limited and needs further clarification, his emphasis on the close relationship between discourse community and genre has significantly influenced the development of teaching academic writing (Hyland, 2008; Wingate & Tribble, 2011). In this perspective, genre is a socially constructed strategy of a particular discourse community for the shared communicative purposes (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010; Bhatia, 1993). Therefore, the students' difficulties with academic literacy are viewed as due to their unfamiliarity with "new communicative practices" rather than lack of language proficiency (Hyland, 2014, p. 393). Indeed, the findings of disciplinary discourse studies have shown that particular genres and communicative conventions play a significant role in discourse practices of various professional communities (see Ha & Hyland, 2017; Mudraya, 2006; Valipouri & Nassaji, 2013). For this reason, genre EAP researchers focus on systematic analysis of linguistic characteristics of various genres and the discourse communities to develop pedagogical instructions to meet the needs of students (Tribble & Wingate, 2013).

However, the genre approach is often criticised by the proponents of academic literacies and ELF for its normative orientation and text-based approach (Leung et al., 2016; Lillis & Scott, 2007; Lillis & Turner, 2001; Mauranen et al., 2010). Particularly academic literacies researchers point out that, in the genre approach, students are seen as passive recipients of knowledge who need to learn 'the essentials' of disciplinary discourse through the exemplars from expert rather than through questioning and discovering the nature of discourse (Lillis & Tuck, 2016; Russell, Lea, Parker, Street, & Donahue, 2009). In this perspective, Lillis and Tuck (2016, p. 34) argue, questioning is "reserved only for those already admitted to academic 'inner circles'" while the experience and knowledge of students are left to fade away. Yet, Hyland (2018) refutes that writing is a practice "based on expectations" (p. 394); that is, the writer should produce a text in a way that the readers will recognise. In this respect, genres are perceived as the discipline-specific communicative devices for its community members to understand each other, as well as the world around them. In the higher education context, then, students are expected to convey message in a way that a particular discourse community could understand the

purpose and content of their text since writing has been and still is the main assessment method in higher education (Wingate & Tribble, 2012). Therefore, it is argued that a genre approach should be seen as a ‘community-based’ rather than a ‘text-based’ pedagogical model, which helps students learn to communicate as members of social group in the context of higher education (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010; Hyland, 2003; Swales, 1990). Also, the textual models used in academic literacy teaching, in this sense, are seen as “the resources to critically understand the contexts in which genres are produced and used” by helping students recognise “both constraints and choices” in disciplinary discourse practices within their relevant contexts (Hyland, 2018, p. 394).

On the other hand, the academic literacies approach focuses more on the writers and their experience and knowledge in meaning-making process rather than identifying conventions of particular disciplinary texts (Lillis & Tuck, 2016). The term academic ‘literacies’ have brought attention to the pluralistic nature of academic literacy and challenged the academic discourse traditions that are deeply rooted in ‘Standard English’ norms (Blommaert, Street, & Turner, 2007; Street, 1997).

Lea and Street (1998) proposed in their influential article that there are three main approaches to understand academic writing: study skills, academic socialisation, and academic literacies. The study skills approach assumes literacy as “a set of atomised skills which students have to learn” (p. 158) while the academic socialisation perspective put emphasis on introducing and guiding students into a culture of academia, as well as that of specific discipline. The academic literacies approach, then, pays more attention to language practice within individuals’ wider social contexts which highlights the “power and identity [...] intricately bound up with specific instances of language and writing” (Lillis, 2014, p. 364). Nevertheless, it also takes those two traditional perspectives account to provide “more encompassing understanding of the nature of student writing within institutional practices, power relations and identities” (Lea & Street, 1998, p. 158).

In particular, academic literacies researchers have criticised the privilege of essayist literacy in academic writing practices for “closing down diversity in knowledge-making, working against policy goals of widening access” (Lillis & Tuck, 2016, p. 33). In the academic literacies approach, learning is seen as an integration process into a knowledge

community which would require more than mere adaptation or imitation of the dominant academic discourse (Nallaya & Kehrwald, 2013). In other words, both L1 and L2 English students would not be regarded as a novice who must follow the expert's way of disciplinary discourse nor expected to be "agile adaptors, 'navigating' the expectations of different audiences" (Lillis & Tuck, 2016, p. 37). Thus, a number of studies on academic literacies have explored the ways to diversify semiotic resources and invite new genres and practices into the current academic writing practice (Curry, 2007; English, 2011; Flowerdew, 2015; Lillis, 2011). Moreover, Lillis and Curry's (2010) study on academics' writing for English-medium journals shed light on the important role of literacy brokers. In this perspective, academic writing is regarded as a networked activity where academic knowledge-making is considered a collective work of a writer, editors and reviewers. In a similar manner, Tuck (2012) reports on the role of tutors and assessors in shaping students' writing in undergraduate programmes.

Although main concern of the academic literacies approach was initially the local students with diverse social and linguistic backgrounds, its critical view on the current aspect of academic literacy being equated with the discourse of 'educated L1 English speakers' is considered highly relevant to most students, either L1 or L2 English speakers, whose educational context is often multicultural and multilingual today (Lillis 2014).

Nevertheless, the academic literacies approach has often been criticised for its lack of pedagogical application and small-scale case studies, which called for research-based guidelines and principles for mainstream instruction in higher education settings (Wingate & Tribble, 2012). On the other hand, ELF researchers and scholars are concerned that the issue of strong orientation towards Anglophone English norms in academic literacy pedagogy in the context of internationalisation of higher education (Jenkins, 2014; Leung et al., 2016; Mauranen et al., 2010), which will be addressed in the next subsection with more details.

2.3.2.2 English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) in higher education context

While the genre and academic literacies approaches mainly focus on the discipline-specific way of using English, the ELF approach highlights the aspect of "what is seen as

logical, engaging, relevant or well-organised in writing often differs across cultures” (K. Hyland, 2008, p. 548).

In her recent study, Jenkins (2014) investigated 60 university websites to examine the predominant academic English language policies and practices of universities providing EMI programmes across Asia, Europe and L1 English countries. The findings indicate that all institutions in her study, regardless of their geographic location and primary language, presented the cultural diversity and use of EMI as key components of internationalised aspects of their universities. Nevertheless, according to Jenkins, there are either explicit or implicit assumptions that ‘E’ in EMI and academic English skills is associated with L1 English variety. In the meantime, other researchers point out that the notion of EMI is rarely considered in the internationalisation policies in Anglophone universities (Baker & Hüttner, 2017; Humphreys, 2017) while Henderson and Hirst (2007), and Murray and Muller (2018, p. 4) point out that the majority of academic English support in Anglophone universities is still mainly delivered by “dedicated English language development units and writing centres” (i.e. ASUs, PSUs), which predominantly focus on grammar and generic study skills.

Moreover, as English has become the primary medium of academic knowledge distribution, the pressure on L2 English scholars to publish in English has significantly increased today (Lillis & Curry, 2010; Van Parijs, 2007). That is, in addition to devoting their time in learning English as a foreign language, they also “have to familiarize themselves with the conventions of usage that have been established as appropriate to a particular register or genre” (Seidlhofer, 2012, p. 394) in an English-speaking academic context. Although there are no specified rules that academic writing would be judged on the basis of L1 English norms, there is “an unspoken agreement” (Seidlhofer, 2012, p. 395) that appropriateness of academic English use in writing is evaluated by its conformity to ‘Standard English’ to some extent. Flowerdew (2015) also points out that academic writing, particularly in the context of academic publishing, is still strongly associated with the notion of ‘Standard English’ of the UK or US. There are numerous studies which suggest that there is a linguistic advantage for L1 English writers to produce text in a way that is ‘appropriate’ to gatekeepers of international journals (Canagarajah, 2002; Guardiano, Failla, & Calaresu, 2007; Hamel, 2007; Maringe & Jenkins, 2015).

However, Hyland (2016) refutes that writing for publication can be challenging for any academics regardless of whether their first language is English or not. According to him, academic English is nobody's first language, and the register of academic writing involves specific linguistic features that require certain knowledge and values of a particular discourse community. Moreover, drawing on the findings of his study on the articles published between 2000 and 2011, he suggests that rapid increase of publications by non-Anglophone authors and their role as a gatekeeper in international journals indicate the changes in power relationship between Anglophone and non-Anglophone academics. For example, such shifting norms and expectations in some academic journals can be observed in Rozycki and Johnson's (2013) study on a corpus of 14 award-winning articles published in the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE) Transactions. They found the frequent use of "non-canonical grammar", by which they were referring to the grammar usage that is not considered 'appropriate' from the traditional 'Standard English' perspectives, across the paper that were written by non-Anglophone authors. In the editorial of the special issue on writing for publication in multilingual contexts, Kuteeva and Mauranen (2014) also point out that what has been considered the norms for 'good' English in academic writing is changing. Based on their findings, Rozycki and Johnson (2013, p. 166) suggested that teachers of engineering student, particularly those outside of Anglophone countries, could modify their writing instruction "to focus on the structure or format of the research paper, and spend less time on text-level grammar". Nevertheless, they also warned that students "who wish to pursue advanced degrees in Anglophone countries must be made aware that there are differences between global and local expectations, and that canonical grammar use will be expected in academia, as a mark of in group identity" (p. 166).

Therefore, ELF researchers, such as Baker (2016) and Jenkins (2011), call for more inclusive approach in academic writing instruction and practice to move away from NES norms and to appreciate the diversity that students could bring into academic discourse. Others also have criticised the aspect of academic literacy support in Anglophone universities which mainly focuses on 'helping' students conform to the dominant features of academic discourse that are often deeply rooted in the disciplinary practice of Anglophone academic communities (Mauranen et al., 2010; Shohamy, 2006). Nonetheless, referring to Jenkins' (2014) proposal, Tribble (2017) express frustration

with the way that the genre-based approach is seen as assimilationist-oriented practice while the expert-novice approach is mistakenly perceived as the native/ non-native dichotomy which he considered highly problematic. He argues that academic writing should be considered discipline-specific practice and a novice, regardless of their L1 is English or not, has to learn this particular way of communicating the knowledge to be accepted as a member of their disciplinary CoP. However, as Flowerdew (2015) suggests, the current approaches to academic writing may need to acknowledge the ELF perspectives on academic English especially considering the increasing demands of the internationalisation of universities and the growing number of L2 English authors in international journals.

2.3.3 Academics' perspectives on 'appropriate' academic writing

Murray and Sharpling (2018) suggest that there are a range of factors that have an impact on academics' evaluation of students' work, which results in inconsistency of their assessment practice. A similar perspective was expressed by Lea and Street (1998) in their study where its findings indicated a significant gap in terms of the expectations and understandings around academic writing between tutors and students. In particular, they suggest that academics' own experience and knowledge in the discipline significantly influence on their perspectives on "what constitutes the elements of a good piece of student writing" (p. 162). For instance, the notions of argument and structure were the most highlighted by the lecturers as important elements to 'appropriate' writing in their study, but what constitutes an 'appropriate' argument and structure varied depending on their experience in the field:

We suggest that, in practice, what makes a piece of student writing 'appropriate' has more to do with issues of epistemology than with the surface features of form to which staff often have recourse when describing their students' writing. That is to say, underlying, often disciplinary, assumptions about the nature of knowledge affected the meaning given to the term 'structure' and 'argument'. (p. 162)

More recent studies (e.g. Read, Francis, & Robson, 2005; Smith & Coombe, 2006) on academic assessment also indicate that the participants' professional experience and knowledge in the field, and the shared values of their disciplinary community could

affect the way that they attach “importance to different qualities in student work” (Murray & Sharpling, 2018, p. 2).

In the context of academic publishing, on the other hand, Hynninen and Kuteeva (2017) investigated the researchers of history and computer science and identified some common features in their concept of ‘good’ writing. Nevertheless, they reported that the participants in their study (mainly L2 and some L1 English speakers) had different perceptions of ‘good’ disciplinary writing depending on whether they discuss the issue from the position of an author, a reviewer, or a proof-reader. Also, they found that the “linguistic correctness” (p. 63) in academic writing was highly valued by the L2 English researchers which contrast with the suggestions from the previous studies that L2 English users are likely to tolerate the language does not conform to the ‘Standard English’ norms. In regard of this matter, Hynninen and Kuteeva (2017) posit a view that the current practice in academic writing that is deeply linked to L1 English norms may be better understood by taking into account the perspective of CofP:

Standard English norms may indeed prevail but not as a result of English L1 users’ intervention but rather as a result of the practices adopted by the scientific communities, which included increasing numbers of L2 users of English who are influential in their respective fields. (p. 54)

The aim of this study is, then, to shed light on academics’ perceptions about the ‘appropriate’ English use in disciplinary discourse, and what this implies about the kind of English expected in the assessment of students’ work in the context of IHE. Particularly in the current study, the notion of native versus non-native speaker dichotomy is avoided by exploring what academics construe as ‘appropriate’ English from the perspectives of members of disciplinary CofP rather than that of L1 or L2 English speakers. The more details on the design and approaches taken in the data analysis in this study are presented in the Methodology chapter.

2.4 Overview of the literature and research questions

In this chapter, I have provided an overview of the literature related to changing attitudes towards English use in international communication, and constructs of English as an

international academic language. Overall, the literature indicates that there is agreement amongst the scholars and researchers that academic writing should be recognised as a social activity, and the current approach to the use of English in academic settings needs to acknowledge the complex and diverse relationships between academic literacies and discourse communities.

However, the to-date studies on internationalisation of higher education and English as an international academic English have rarely focused on the impact of increasing importance of cultural and linguistic diversity on individual academics' practice especially in regard with their assessment of students' language use. It is important to consider what academics consider appropriate use of English because their feedback has a significant impact on "students' perceptions of academic genres and what constitutes valid knowledge" (Lea, 1998, p. 160). Therefore, this study addresses two sets of research questions related to academics' conceptualisation of appropriate English use in the context of internationalisation of higher education. In addition, to ensure the clarity of focus in each research question, two sets of subsidiary research questions were developed as follows:

1. How do academics conceptualise appropriate English use in UK universities pursuing a policy of internationalisation of higher education?
 - 1a. How do they conceptualise 'the international' in their programmes?
 - 1b. How do they determine the appropriateness of English use in their programmes?
2. What are the factors that facilitate or hinder the adoption by academics of their concept of appropriate English use in their teaching and assessment practices?
 - 2a. How and to what extent is their conceptualisation of 'the international' and 'appropriate English use' reflected in their teaching practices?
 - 2b. How and to what extent is their conceptualisation of 'the international' and 'appropriate English use' reflected in their assessment practices?

The following chapter presents the methodology employed in this study to investigate the above research questions.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a description of the methodology, data collection and analysis procedures used in the current study. It begins by presenting the research paradigm and overall design, and goes on to explain the processes involved in data collection and analysis. Finally, it concludes with a discussion of the trustworthiness of the study and the ethical issues that were taken into consideration.

3.2 Philosophical Framework and Research Design

As with any study, it was important for this research to be informed by a clear philosophical framework, because this not only guides a researcher in how to shape a problem into research questions, but also in how to look for information to answer those questions (Huff, 2009). The current study was guided by social constructionism to explore the complex nature of using English as an international academic language while a collective case study design was used to examine the identified themes more holistically within the area of interest. The following sub-sections provide a detailed explanation of my choices of the epistemological position and design of the study.

3.2.1 Social constructionism

According to the constructionist perspective, reality is not only socially constructed, but multiple realities also exist as each individual may construct meanings of the same phenomenon in different ways (Crotty, 1998; Gubrium & Holstein, 2008; Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011). Although this subjectivity is often criticised for its potential impact on the validity of knowledge, Lincoln et al. (2011) argue that knowledge in social constructionism is rooted in the way individuals engage with the world that they are living in, and therefore it is not separable from the person who constructs it. But nor does this mean that knowledge is subjective. As Crotty (1998) explains, it is the interaction between subject and object that forges meaning, and therefore knowledge, in this sense, cannot be simply described as objective or subjective. Within this constructionist epistemology, I particularly took a social constructionist stance which focuses on “the collective generation of meaning as shaped by conventions of language and other social processes” (Schwandt, 1994, p. 127). Social constructionists consider that the collective

construction of understanding the world is important as it produces a particular social action from which the social phenomenon emerges (Crotty, 1998). They also acknowledge that it is a construction that is “specific to particular cultures and a periods of history” (Burr, 2003, p. 4). That is, what we regard as truth at present does not necessarily hold the same value for people from the past or future, or from different cultural backgrounds. Although, Fish (1980, p. 332) stresses that a collectively shared way of making meaning and understanding the world is an inevitable element of society, social constructionists warn that it could also cause people to fall into a trap of ‘common sense’ (Hall, 2012; Sarantakos, 2013; Wolff, 1989). By common sense, I refer to what Crotty (1998) explains as the following:

We tend to take ‘the sense we make of things’ to be ‘the way things are’ ... Understandings transmitted in this way and gaining a place in our view of the world take deep root and we find ourselves victims of the ‘tyranny of the familiar’. (p. 59)

This view is highly relevant to the current study as it is rarely acknowledged that the concept of ‘appropriateness’ in terms of using English in academic communication gradually changed throughout history as discussed in Chapter 2. However, as a number of scholars have claimed, academic English still equates with the traditional idea of ‘Standard English’ and common practice in L1 English scholars amongst the majority of academics as well as non-academics (Jenkins, 2014; Lillis & Curry, 2010; Seidlhofer, 2009; Van Parijs, 2007). Therefore, the study was conducted from a social constructionist perspective to investigate how academics construct and apply ‘appropriate’ use of English as members of their particular disciplinary communities in the universities pursuing internationalisation of higher education.

Furthermore, I acknowledged that I, as “a co-constructor of knowledge” (Guba & Lincoln, 2005, p. 196), cannot conduct research in a fully value-free manner. Considering that my own experience as a non-UK student and EAP teacher may raise the issue of bias, I made a conscious effort to critically reflect on my own subjectivity throughout the research process to minimise its impact on the findings. I also provided detailed information about my role and background in this study. This was because rich

description and rigorous reflexivity enable readers to evaluate the research on their own (Jupp, 2006). Lincoln et al (2011) also suggest that the complexity of human phenomena requires rigour in interpretation with extensive description of the data. More detailed information on the rigour of the study is provided in section 3.5.

3.2.2 Collective case study

This section presents the process of designing the current study, including changes made from the initial plan and the reasoning behind the modification. The study was conducted using case study design, since this enables a researcher to take a holistic approach and recognise the complexity of an issue or phenomenon within its context (Punch, 2014). However, Baxter and Jack (2008, p. 546) warn that researchers in case study research often “attempt to answer a question that is too broad or a topic that has too many objectives for one study”. Therefore, I focused on “what can be learned within the opportunities for study” (Stake, 2005, p. 449) to avoid such a pitfall. There are a number of ways to define case study, but three distinctive features are often highlighted in the literature: (a) the bounded nature of a case, (b) the importance of a real-life context, (c) and the use of multiple data sources (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Creswell, 2013; Duff, 2008; Merriam, 1998).

Hence, these three elements were key considerations in the design of the current study. In particular, I adopted Stake’s (1995) perspective on qualitative case study which provided a greater flexibility in study design than others, for example, Yin’s (2009) model which values adherence to a predetermined structure. This structural flexibility was crucial since the study was initially envisaged as a qualitative cross-sectional study, then later modified to a case study due to the challenges that occurred in the sampling and data collection processes, which are explained the later part of this section. Stake (1995, p. 17) classifies the type of case study into three broad categories based on the aim of inquiry, which he emphasises as “a powerful conceptual structure for organizing the study of a case”: intrinsic, instrumental, and collective. In an intrinsic case study, the researcher’s interest is to understand a unique case itself, whereas in an instrumental case study, a case plays a supportive role to help the researcher gain insight into a particular phenomenon. When multiple instrumental cases are examined, it can be called a collective case study.

The current study used a collective case study design to investigate the concept of appropriate English use in the context of internationalisation of higher education. In this investigation, academics of different disciplines were considered individual cases, and the concept ‘appropriate’ English use was explored through their conceptualisations and practices which involved the appropriation of language use in their disciplines. In particular, the participants in this study were regarded as senior members of the disciplinary communities, and therefore their practices were interpreted as their approaches to support or influence newcomers (i.e. students) in their communities of practice. The primary concern in the case selection was its capacity to provide useful insights into expected and ‘appropriate’ academic English use across the disciplines. The importance of learning opportunities in cases is also emphasised by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) as follows:

Case studies, in not having to seek frequencies of occurrences, can replace quantity with quality and intensity, separating the *significant few* from the *insignificant many* instances of behaviour. Significance rather than frequency is a hallmark of case studies, offering the researcher an insight into the real dynamics of situations and people. (pp. 257-258; emphasis in original)

At the beginning of the sampling procedure, 84 academics whose contact details were publicly available and met the following criteria were invited to participate in the study via email to obtain participants who “can purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon in the study” (Creswell, 2013, p. 156):

- a) Academics must teach a UK degree programme at FHEQ level 6 or above.
- b) Academics must teach in one of the following fields of study: pure science, applied science, humanities, pure social science and applied social science.
- c) Academics must teach final year or postgraduate students.
- d) Academics’ assessment practices must involve written assessment.

Firstly, certificate and diploma courses were excluded because although some master’s courses are included, they tend to be more centred on skills and training than degree programmes. Secondly, criterion b) was added to include participants from different

disciplines using Becher's (1987) classification of academic disciplines. His broad categories allowed me to reach academics from a wide range of subject areas, but they shares similar discourse patterns between their disciplinary communities of practice (Becher & Trowler, 2001). Also, the study focused on final year undergraduate and taught postgraduate programmes because students in these programmes are more likely to be expected to produce the language and conventions of the community of practice in which they are peripheral members. Finally, academics' involvement in written assessment was a crucial part of this study because academic English is substantially linked to written rather than spoken language (Mauranen et al., 2010; Wingate, 2018). Moreover, it was considered that the assessment process may reflect the educational and personal value that an assessor holds (Edwards, 2000).

The original design of the research was a qualitative cross-sectional study which involved three universities with different characteristics and contexts (e.g. campus university, city university and internationally renowned university) in the UK. This was because I considered environmental aspects to be important variables in terms of understanding English usage in an academic setting.

However, some difficulties occurred during the sampling procedure which called for an adjustment of the study design. For instance, the fact that there were different procedures and protocols for each university and faculty to contact potential participants impeded the identification of suitable participants while the majority of academics stated that they could not spare time for the interview due to their overwhelming workloads. Moreover, the number of academics who replied to the invitation to participate in the study was considerably lower from non-social science programmes than those from social sciences. Hence, some modifications were made on the participant recruitment flyers and email invitations, such as replacing the word 'English' with 'language use', and emphasising their disciplinary contexts, which slightly increased the overall number of participants who responded to the invitation. Nevertheless, getting an equal number of participants across all three universities turned out to be impractical considering the time constraints of this study. Thus, I modified the study design to a collective case study and added a snowball sampling strategy by asking the academics who had already committed to participate in the study to identify further potential participants who met the selection

criteria. Furthermore, preliminary analysis had suggested that the variations within the data collected could be best explained at a disciplinary level rather than institutional level, as explained in more detail in section 3.4. Therefore, it was not necessary to confine data collection to a particular university context since, although important, it was not the focus of this study. Nonetheless, criterion e) was added to ensure that the academics' teaching context was multicultural or diversity-oriented, which was mainly determined by the information for domestic and international prospective students on each institution's website.

- e) The institution where the academic is teaching emphasises its international outlook in its marketing information or on its website.

I acquired a further 52 academics' contact details through either the universities' webpages and other academics and invited them to participate in the study via email or in person. Twenty administrative staff from the relevant universities were also contacted to circulate the invitation to their relevant colleagues, as some departments did not provide contact information of their academic staff. The travelling distance for interviews and willingness of participants to share their views were also considered so as to obtain sufficient and rich information. Figure 3 below shows the modified design of this study:

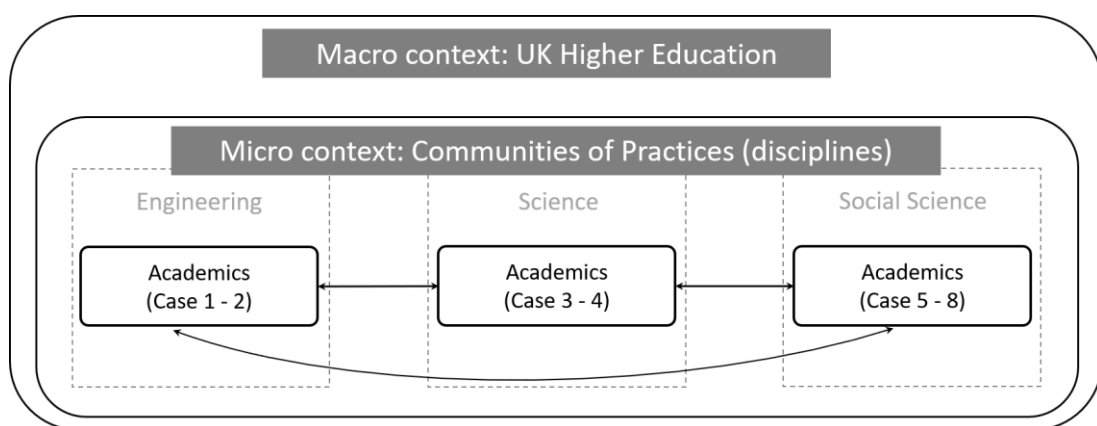


Figure 3. Collective case study design of this research project

In the current study, eight academics across three disciplines were selected as cases. The number of cases was determined using the concept of data saturation which refers to

“the point in data collection and analysis when new information produces little or no changes to the codebook” (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006, p. 65). The arrows shown in the Figure 3 indicate that the data were constantly compared across all cases rather than between/among cases within the same discipline. The next section provides more information about the context and the participants of the current study.

3.2.3 Context and participants

The participants were recruited from three different universities located in London, the South East and the South West of England respectively. All three universities were research-intensive and strongly emphasised their international profile on the websites. Table 3 shows the total number of student enrolments and the proportion of non-UK students in the three universities when the data collection of the current study was undertaken. The non-UK student figures involve both EU and Non-EU students. Also, the numbers shown in the table are approximations in order to ensure the anonymity of the institutions.

Table 3. Higher education student enrolments 2016/17 (Higher Education Statistics, 2018a)

	Total students	Non-UK students
University A	17,000	29%
University B	25,000	33%
University C	6,000	6%

Considering the average non-UK student enrolment percentage in 2016/17 in UK higher education providers was 19% (Higher Education Statistics, 2018), both university A and B hosted a comparatively large number of non-UK students, who made up about 30% of total student enrolments.

The majority of participants in this study (Cases 1 to 6) were from University A while Case 7 and 8 were from University B and C, respectively. The high number of cases from one institution was a consequence of the original strategy for data collection. It was also because the cases (i.e. participants) were chosen based on their willingness to share their thoughts and experience regarding the expectations for academic English use in their disciplines since their institutional context was a less significant variable to understand the language use within their particular communities of practice. All

participants had extensive experience in their field of study as a researcher of between 10 and 30 years, but their teaching experience varied from one to 20 years. Such differences in teaching experience might have affected the way they evaluated their students. More details about the participants are provided in Chapter 4, together with the findings for better understanding of each participant's conceptualisation. In the report, all participants' names have been replaced with pseudonyms and some unique features that might identify the individual or the institution have been omitted from the thesis to ensure confidentiality and anonymity in this study. More information regarding the ethical considerations of this study is discussed in section 3.6 of this chapter.

3.3 Research Methods and Data Collection

This section provides detailed information on the methods and the data collection process of the current study. Three different types of individual interviews were employed as the primary means of data collection. Additionally, a document review was carried out to develop interview questions, as well as to gather as much data as possible to understand contextual information of the participants. The data were collected in three phases, as shown as Figure 4, between 2016 and 2017. A cyclical process of analysis was used throughout the data collection until saturation had been reached. More detailed information on data analysis is presented in section 3.4.

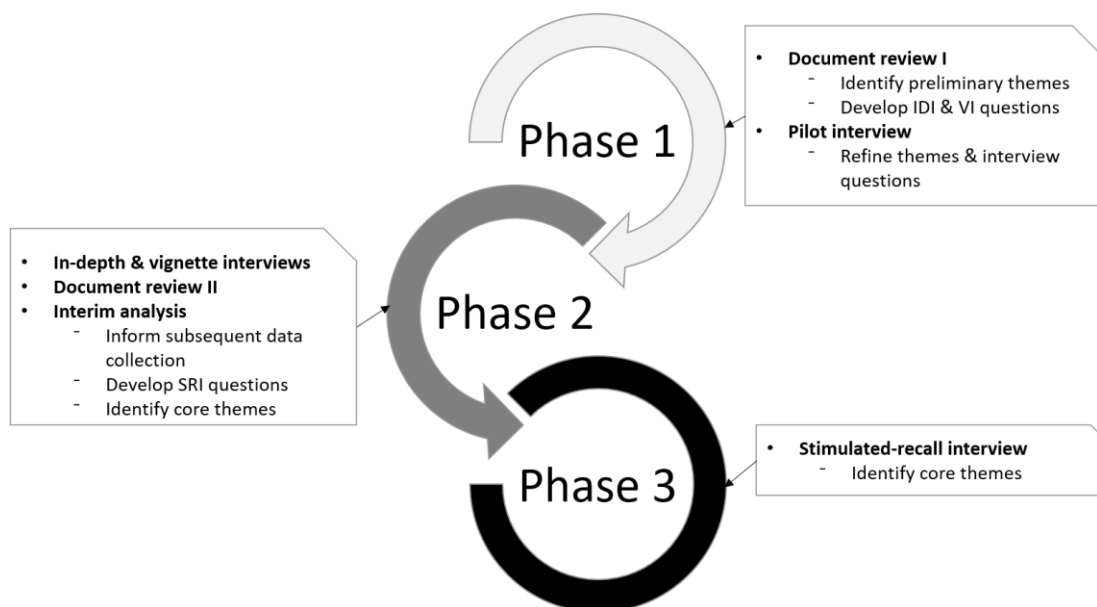


Figure 4. Data collection procedures

Phase 1 involved document review focusing on the depiction of international features and expected English language proficiency in the participants' programme. Also, in this phase, interview protocol and questions for the subsequent phase were refined through a pilot interview. Phase 2 consisted of in-depth interviews and vignette interviews with the participants, and additional document review focusing on expectations regarding the use of academic English in the context of assessment. In the final phase, stimulated-recall interviews were conducted with particular attention to what was considered to be appropriate English use in written assessment. More details about each phase are presented in the sections that follow.

3.3.1 Phase 1: Document review

In Phase 1, university websites and programme prospectuses were chosen to gain contextual information for each case, as well as to identify the key international features that the participant's institution or programme highlighted. Documents are usually not produced for research purposes, and therefore often criticised that they may be "selective, deliberately excluding certain details or information" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 203). Nevertheless, Merriam and Tisdell (2016, p. 183) argue that documents are "nonreactive" data sources, that is, not affected by the researcher or research process because they are not intended to be research data. Cohen et al (2007, p. 201) also suggest that, as a social product, documents are useful data sources that "may catch the dynamic situation at the time of writing", yet it is important to assess their authenticity and accuracy by verifying how, why and by whom they come into existence to enable readers to judge the transferability of findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; McCulloch, 2004; Punch, 2014).

Most documents used in Phase 1 were obtained from publicly available sources. In order to collect the relevant documents for the study topic, I used the following thematic filters drawn from the research questions and aim of this study:

- International/ internationalisation
- English language requirement (for the participants' programme)
- Academic speaking and writing
- Academic assessment

Some additional documents, such as UK Visas and Immigration (UKVI) English requirement and regulations for non-UK higher education students, and course briefs of the university's Academic Skills Unit (ASU), were also collected for more comprehensive understanding of the contexts. Both websites and additional documents were electronic sources, but the former was publicly available, aimed at non-British and non-EU potential applicants while the latter was only accessible by the university staff and students. The programme prospectuses, on the other hand, were all available in both printed and electronic versions, although the electronic forms were used for analysis as they were easier to access. The brochures were produced for promotional purposes and mainly targeted potential students and their parents. All documents were retrieved in early 2016, but the brochures were accessed and reviewed again in 2017 because some of the contents had been edited as a consequence of the result of the EU referendum in June 2016. The data obtained were considered as representation of the general attitude towards academic English and internationalisation of participants' institution or programme. Thus, they were analysed to identify preliminary themes which contributed to the development of the interview questions and guided the subsequent data coding process.

Regarding the interviews, three different qualitative interviews were chosen as the primary methods of data collection to explore participants' conceptualisation of appropriate English use in an international academic context. Qualitative interviews help a researcher to "classify and organize an individual's perception of reality" (Fetterman, 2010, p. 43), but different types of interview have different functions and serve different purposes. Thus, it is important to select the interview that is "aligned with the strategy, purposes and the research questions" (Punch, 2009, p. 146).

Firstly, I employed In-depth interview (henceforth **IDI**) to understand the participants' perspectives on their own teaching context and what being international in academic settings meant to them. According to Johnson (2001, p. 106), the **IDI** is an effective means to discover the meaning of human behaviours by seeking "deep understandings that go beyond commonsense explanations" for some phenomena or issues of interest. In particular, its flexible structure encourages the interviewee to express themselves freely and extensively, which would enable the researcher to gain comprehensive

knowledge of the target phenomenon (Charmaz, 2001). However, this type of interview does have some disadvantages such as a risk that the interviewee may not give their honest opinion or may hold back information. Additionally, the interviewer may interpret the interviewee's response according to their own bias as Johnson noted:

It is not the case that there is just 'one truth' that the observer or interviewer either does or does not 'see' or 'hear'. Rather, each researcher implicitly draws upon his or her commonsense cultural knowledge [...] and creates or constructs a truth or interpretation that will work for all practical (intellectual) purposes. (2001, p. 106)

Nonetheless, as explained in the earlier section on epistemology, social constructionists consider that a researcher constructs knowledge together with participants by unfolding the meanings of their narratives through interpretation (Kvale, 1996; Legard, Keegan, & Ward, 2003; Seidman, 2006). Therefore, the researchers' involvement in the meaning making process was not regarded as a limitation in this study, although I practised constant reflexivity to make myself aware of the possible influence of my subjectivity on the data. A more detailed discussion of positionality (i.e. reflexivity) in this study is presented in section 3.5.2. Moreover, as an EAP teacher myself, showing empathy regarding teaching and supporting students on academic English use helped me to build a good rapport with most of the academics who participated in the study, which invited candid responses throughout the interviews.

Secondly, Vignette interview (henceforth VI) was used to explore participants' concepts of appropriateness of English use in the context of assessment. Vignettes, which can be stories, images or other objects that interviewees are asked to respond to, are useful tools for a qualitative researcher to "go beyond the discussion of individual life situations and toward the generation of responses on a social level" (Schoenberg & Ravdal, 2000, pp. 64–65). In this study, three short stories were used to investigate the elements the participants most considered in their concept of appropriate English use. Each vignette described a fictitious character, Remy who is a new lecturer facing difficulties assessing coursework of three different students, and each participant was asked to offer advice in given situations (see Appendix 1). The first two vignettes consisted of two written assignments which had an issue of unconventional language use and lack of critical

thinking skills respectively while the third one depicted an oral presentation that also involved unconventional language use.

Vignettes are often criticised in that their artificiality of context cannot represent the complex nature of reality. However, Hughes (1998) argues that by leaving “space for respondents to define the situation in their own terms” (Finch, 1987, p. 112), a vignette forces them to explain additional aspects that affect their judgement. In this study, Remy’s field of study was not specified in the vignettes so that the participants could read the stories in their own context. Also, the word *unconventional* was used to describe the issues around students’ written and spoken language use to avoid negatively connoted words, such as ‘errors’ and ‘mistakes’, as well as for the participants to interpret and define the concept of inappropriate language use in the given stories.

Another concern regarding using VI is the possibility that participants give “socially desired responses” that may not correspond to their behaviour in a real-life situation (Barter & Renold, 2000, p. 312). I acknowledge that the participants in this study might have felt intimidated about sharing their own principles regarding assessment practice. Thus, to reduce the pressure on the participants to give socially acceptable responses, they were positioned as a mentor from whom Remy sought advice on each scenario. This approach allowed the participants to discuss the issue from a “non-personal” and “less-threatening perspective” (Hughes, 1998, p. 383) by eliciting comments on the third person’s behaviour. It also enabled them to decide when or if to “introduce their own experiences to illuminate their abstract responses” (Barter & Renold, 2000, p. 319). The vignettes were examined by two experienced lecturers to ensure the situations presented in the stories were plausible, as well as relevant to the aim of the study.

Finally, stimulated-recall interview (henceforth **SRI**) was used to gain deeper insights into the participants’ concept of appropriate English use in their own written assessment contexts. More details about SRIs are presented in section 3.3.3.

The pilot interviews were conducted in February 2016 with a lecturer in Business Studies. The pilot participant was chosen for her experience in interdisciplinary projects and willingness to participate in the interviews. She was an L1 English speaker with over

five years of teaching experience in the UK and overseas. Only IDI and VI questions were piloted as SRI questions for each participant would be individualised based on the data obtained from Phase 2. The pilot participant's experience of working with academics from various disciplines was particularly helpful for me to determine whether the interview questions could be clearly understood by academics regardless of their subject fields. For instance, the interviewee pointed out that some terminology, such as the concept of EIL and English variety, might be understood differently by academics with no linguistics background. It was also pointed out that the expressions such as 'the concept of international' and 'the role of English in the discipline' might be too broad or vague to give an answer. Based on the feedback from the interviewee, the wording of the questions was refined and some linguistic terminology in the vignette descriptions were removed to make them clearer and easier to understand. The following presents the main interview procedures.

3.3.2 Phase 2: In-depth interviews (IDIs) and vignette interviews (VIs)

In Phase 2, the interviews were conducted individually in English with the eight teaching academics. IDIs and VIs were conducted on the same day as most participants were reluctant to be involved in three separate interviews due to their busy schedules. All interviews were voice-recorded in a quiet room although a few interruptions, such as construction noise outside the building and phone calls, occurred in some cases. The interview began with the IDI which was comprised of seven open-ended questions. Each interview lasted for approximately 30 minutes. The interview protocol (see Appendix 2) was devised to cover key areas of interest, as well as to ensure the focus of the interview remained on English use and internationalisation in the participants' context. The follow-up questions were also asked through further probing as needed, to provide clarification or more detail. Once the IDI had been completed, details of each vignette were given for reading. The VI comprised three short stories with seven main questions, and two post-vignette questions: Vignette 1 had three questions, and both Vignettes 2 and 3 had two questions each. Each VI was conducted for about 20 minutes, during which the participants commented on what Remy (a lecturer in the vignettes) should do in each story. At the end of VIs, the participants were asked to send the following documents via email for the preparation of the SRIs:

- Programme handbook
- Marking criteria used in the programme or module(s) they were teaching
- Three pieces of written feedback from student work they had recently assessed

These additional documents were restricted access sources, only available to the students who were enrolled in the programme and/or authorised personnel such as academics and department administrators. However, Peter provided a module specification instead of the handbook while Nancy provided a coursework specification because, according to Nancy, her programme did not produce a handbook. The substitutes were accepted as they also contained information about the programme which was relevant for the study. Regarding the written feedback, the participants provided those on a separate feedback sheet because most of participants could not share on-paper feedback – which refers to the feedback directly written on students’ paper – with third parties, or could not access the material once they completed the marking. Most documents were in an electronic form, and the printed materials were scanned and saved as PDF files. The interviews were transcribed and analysed with the additional documents to identify core themes and develop the SRI questions.

3.3.3 Phase 3: Stimulated-recall interviews (SRIs)

The preliminary findings from Phase 2 interviews and additional document reviews showed that the participants’ concept of the international was less evident in their written assessment than their teaching or oral assessment contexts. Thus, in this final phase, SRIs were conducted to investigate the participants’ expectations of appropriate language use particularly in written assessment by asking them to reconstruct one of their recent marking practices.

Fetterman (2010) suggests that SRIs are useful techniques to learn about participants as “the manner in which individuals shape the past highlights their values and reveals the configuration of their worldviews” (p. 42). However, it also involves a risk that participants may not recount their experience accurately since human memory becomes less reliable over time (Lyle, 2003; Mackey & Gass, 2007). To minimise such a risk, arranging the interview as soon as possible after the event is strongly recommended (Mackey & Gass, 2007), but in this study, most participants explained that it would be

difficult to take part in interviews shortly after university assessment periods due to their intense schedules and workload. As a consequence, all SRIs were arranged within two weeks from the day the participants sent me the requested additional documents at the end of Phase 2 interviews, except George's which was rearranged five weeks after his documents were received due to his busy schedule.

I recognise that such a long-time lapse could increase the risk of memory distortion, and therefore I made every effort to encourage the participants' accurate recall of the event. For example, the marking criteria that the participants used in their marking, and pieces of written feedback obtained from Phase 2 were used as stimuli which helped the participants recall the situation as precisely as possible. They were also asked, if possible, to bring students' work and any notes they made during the assessment to the interviews to aid their recall process. This was because, as Mackey and Gass (2007) suggest, the interviewee can "relive an original situation with great vividness and accuracy if he is presented with a large number of the cues or stimuli which occurred during the original situation" (p. 13). Moreover, regarding the use of marking criteria in the interviews, I particularly focused on its linguistic and communicative components to ensure the focus of the interview remained on the participants' evaluation of language use in students' written work. However, not all marking criteria clearly categorised such components, and therefore the criteria were separately analysed to identify the most frequently occurring features of linguistic and communicative components across eight cases, as shown in Table 4.

Table 4. The linguistic and communicative components in written assessment

Linguistic and communicative components
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clarity of expression • Overall structure (coherence, cohesion) • Spelling, grammar and syntax • Visual quality and legibility • Writing style, including use of academic conventions

Furthermore, interview questions and protocols were carefully designed to "limit the perception of "judgemental probing" and the researcher's interference with participants' reconstruction of their past experience (Lyle, 2003). The SRI was comprised of six key

open-ended questions with additional individualised questions generated from the analysis of the written feedback sheets. The interviews were conducted in English, and voice recorded for approximately 30 to 50 minutes.

3.4 Data analysis

In this study, I used thematic analysis and followed Braun and Clarke's (2006) procedures, as shown in Table 5, to seek patterns and themes across the data from both documents and interviews. The flexible nature of thematic analysis enabled me to generate rich and complex data, as well as to examine "the ways in which events, realities, meanings, experience and so on are the effects of a range of discourse operating within society" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 81). An iterative approach was taken in the analytical process as collecting and analysing the data were carried out concurrently.

Table 5. Phase of thematic analysis (reproduced from Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 87)

Phase	Description of the process
1. Familiarizing oneself with the data:	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas
2. Generating initial codes:	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code
3. Searching for themes:	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme
4. Reviewing themes:	Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts and the entire data set, generating a thematic 'map' of the analysis
5. Defining and naming themes:	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme
6. Producing the report:	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis

Analysis began as early as at the Phase 1 where the collected documents data were coded according to their relevance to each other. Frequency of occurrence was also considered, but it was not a primary concern in the coding process because, for example, the frequent appearance of the term 'international' did not necessarily associated with the

programme's or institution's promotion of their international profile. In fact, one of the frequent ways of using the term 'international' in the documents was simply to classify non-EU and/ or EU students for administrative and financial purposes. The coding process generated the following four preliminary themes:

- The concepts of the international in the institution/ programme
- The expected ways of using English in the discipline
- The expected ways of using English in the assessment

Using the above themes as the overarching topics, interview protocol and questions for IDI and VI, as well as the content of the vignettes were generated.

Phase 2 analysis began with transcribing the interviews. This is often considered to be a useful technique to facilitate "the close attention and the interpretive thinking that is needed to make sense of the data" (Lapadat & Lindsay, 1999, p. 82). However, Morris (2015) suggests that researchers should acknowledge that interview transcriptions are constructed between the interviewer and interviewee. Therefore, it is important to address the issues of positionality of both researcher themselves and the participants, as well as the detailed description of transcribing process to ensure the trustworthiness of the study (Lapadat & Lindsay, 1999; Merriam et al., 2001).

In this study, I took a position of "active interviewer" (Holstein & Gubrium, 1995, p. 40) who guided and shaped the interview process, as well as constructed knowledge together with interviewees. All interviews were transcribed verbatim and checked for accuracy while the additional documents were analysed following the same procedure as in Phase 1. During and after the transcription process, interesting features were chosen as initial codes, but their contextual information were kept intact since it may have altered the meaning of the data if removed (Bryman, 2012). Both document and interview data obtained were analysed in a cyclical manner as the other interviews progressed. That is, if new themes were emerged from the new data, the transcripts of the interviews, as well as the document data from Phase 1 were re-analysed to identify the relationships between/ amongst the themes. This interim analysis led to preliminary findings which highlighted the disciplinary differences and similarities in the participants' concepts of

appropriate English use. They also indicated that the differences were more evident in written assessment than oral assessment. These findings were reflected in the development of the SRI questions which focused on the participants' expectations of appropriate written language use in their programme.

In Phase 3, SRIs were transcribed and analysed in the same manner as in Phase 2. The data saturation was also achieved at this stage as no new data emerged in the interviews. In each case, the generated codes were examined for its relevance and the relationship to each other, and then categorised according to those relationships. The codes were again investigated within the categories for thematic consistency, and consolidated into key themes to identify the core idea associated with the participants' concept of the international and appropriate English use. However, Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 89) stress that "the tensions and inconsistencies within and across data items" should not be ignored in the analysis, and therefore the unique or prominent aspects within a case were also reported if they helped me better understand the phenomenon even though they did not conform to the core themes. The analysis was done by case-by-case at first, and then the core ideas were analysed across all eight cases, following the cross-case procedure proposed by Stake (2006), to identify the themes that could explain and "fit into the broader overall story" in relation to the research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 92). While the individual case analysis helped me understand each case within its unique context, the cross-case analysis allowed me to understand the complexity of the phenomenon through both commonalities and differences across the cases. As a result of the iterative process of coding and analysing, three central themes emerged from the triangulated data: 1) the varied concepts of the international, 2) disciplinary differences in the participants' concept of appropriate English use, and 3) the impact of the multiple communities of practice on the participants' assessment practice.

3.5 Rigour of the Study

3.5.1 Trustworthiness

In this study, Lincoln and Guba's (1985) model of trustworthiness was considered to ensure the rigour of the research process and analysis. The positivists often question the trustworthiness of qualitative research because it cannot be measured in the same way as their concepts of validity and reliability are evaluated (Cohen et al., 2007). However,

Guba (1981) argues that the fundamentals of both quantitative and qualitative researchers that seek to determine the rigour of research are the same, and suggests the following four key criteria to secure the trustworthiness of qualitative studies: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. In particular, credibility seeks to answer “the question of how research findings match reality” (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 242). As a qualitative study positioned in social constructionist framework, the reality in this study is the construction of each participant. Given the impact of communities of practice on professional performance of individual (Wenger, 2010), it was essential for me to consider the participants’ disciplinary communities of practice as I interpret their concept of appropriate English use in this study.

Data triangulation was achieved in this study by collecting data from documents and individual interviews while methodological triangulations was done by employing three different types of interviews. Although the document analysis was used for broad contextual information rather than a separate main method, it provided useful data on the aspects of internationality that their institutions promoted, which were compared with that of participants. With regard to the interview method, each interview was designed to examine the participants’ concept of appropriate English use in relation to varied elements, such as their understanding of internationalisation of higher education (IDIs), their perception as a senior member of disciplinary community of practice (VIs), and their assessment practice (SRIs). Data saturation was used to determine sufficiency of the data as described in the previous section (3.4). Also, all participants were invited to check their interview transcripts, but it should be noted that the majority of the participants declined the invitation due to their high workload. In order to secure the dependability, a detailed description of data collection and analysis process, including the challenges and limitations and how they were dealt with in the study, was provided. This also included thick description of each case and the relevant contextual information to enable readers to generalise the findings to their contexts (Shenton, 2004). Finally, I acknowledged the subjectivity of qualitative research and through constant reflection on my positionality, which is presented in the next subsection.

3.5.2 Positionality

According to Bourke (2014, p. 3), “we can never truly divorce ourselves of subjectivity”, but readers could critically evaluate the conclusion of this study by recognising our own bias and providing detailed accounts of individual, as well as socio-cultural values (Finlay, 2006; Seale, 1999).

I am an experienced EAP teacher who is aware of the differences of English use across the disciplines while I also have been a non-UK student in Canada and the UK during my undergraduate and postgraduate studies respectively. Hence, my professional experience of teaching and assessing academic English and personal experience of how my English had been assessed in English speaking universities may have affected my interpretation of the document data and the participants’ responses during the interviews. Moreover, in this study, I was an outsider of the participants’ communities of practice since I was neither an academic nor a person involved in their programmes. Nevertheless, with Robyn, I shared some common value as a fellow member of applied linguistics community although I was still an outsider of her institutional community of practice. As a consequence, I acknowledge that my interpretation of her responses in the interviews may be made on the basis of our shared values and understanding of disciplinary practice.

3.6 Ethical considerations

There were several important ethical issues to be considered, particularly as the study used some documents with restricted access as well as interview methods where participants shared their personal experiences and perspectives (Allmark et al., 2009). Firstly, the informed consent procedure establishes the contractual relationship between the researcher and the participants, but it also becomes the basis for subsequent considerations (Cohen et al., 2007). Thus, all participants were given the right to decide the matter of participation in the study voluntarily as an information sheet was sent via email or in person, together with a form that participants signed to indicate their informed consent. The information sheet provided the purpose and overall procedures of the study, as well as details on how the collected data would be used. The signed consent form was collected at the beginning of Phase 2 interviews. Also, a verbal explanation about the study was given at the interview site before starting the recording.

The participants had the right to discontinue participation in the study at any time by withdrawing their consent (BERA, 2011). Secondly, extra caution was given to maintain the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants and their programmes. The participants' names were replaced with pseudonyms, and universities and programmes were anonymised with assigned letters and by removing identifiable information. Moreover, the documents and interview extracts in the thesis were carefully checked so that they did not disclose the identity of the participants and their programmes. Finally, all personal data, including interview recordings and transcriptions, and documents, including written feedback sheets were kept in a secure location available only to me, the researcher, to comply with the Data Protection Act (1998).

In conclusion, the chapter presented the methodological components that informed and guided this study. The rationale of using social constructionism as philosophical framework, and a collective case study design for this study was explained while the detailed procedures of data collections and analysis were also provided. The following chapter will present the results of the analysis in relation to the research questions.

Chapter 4: Findings

4.1 Introduction

The findings from the analysis of the data are presented in this chapter according to the key concepts encompassed within the research questions. The first section below (4.2) provides background information to assist in the contextualisation of each case. This information is presented in this chapter rather than elsewhere since it was obtained through interviews with the participants concerned, as well as through analysis of the available documents relating to the participants' programmes. In addition, it provides the reader with an easily accessible reference as the themes are presented in the subsequent sections.

The research questions, as presented in Chapter 2, were as follows:

1. How do academics conceptualise appropriate English use in UK universities pursuing a policy of internationalisation?
 - 1a. How do they conceptualise 'the international' in their programmes?
 - 1b. How do they determine the appropriateness of English use in their programmes?
2. What are the factors that facilitate or hinder the adoption by academics of their concept of appropriate English use in their teaching and assessment practices?
 - 2a. How and to what extent is their conceptualisation of 'the international' and 'appropriate English use' reflected in their teaching practices?
 - 2b. How and to what extent is their conceptualisation of 'the international' and 'appropriate English use' reflected in their assessment practices?

From these questions were drawn the key concepts which provided the organisational structure for the findings in this chapter. These were (a) the conceptualisation of 'the international' and (b) the notion of 'appropriate language use', as presented in Section 4.3 and 4.4 respectively. In these sections, the different perspectives of the participants on the notion of 'the international' and linguistic appropriateness in their teaching context are presented. In Section 4.6 and 4.7, the focus shifts to the factors which influenced participants' approaches in teaching and assessment to answer RQ 2.

Particularly in Section 4.7, analysis of similarities and differences in participants' concepts of 'appropriate' language use between teaching and assessment contexts are presented to identify the key factors in relation to their own practices when assessing student work. Section 4.5 and 4.8, then, brings together the ideas presented in its previous two sections (4.3 and 4.4; 4.6 and 4.7 respectively) to introduce the key findings to be discussed further in Chapter 5.

Throughout this chapter, the following identifiers are used with quotations from individual participants to indicate their source: the name of the participant plus the abbreviation of data source (e.g. IDI, VI, SRI, or DR).

4.2 The Cases: background information

In this section, information is presented on both the participants' professional background and the course on which he or she taught. This includes, where available, data on assessment methods, number of students and any relevant information about the programme. It should be noted that the exact number of non-UK students in each programme could not be obtained because the statistical data were categorised only into two groups: Home/EU and non-EU. Thus, the percentage of all non-UK student enrolments in each programme (that is, EU and non-EU whose nationality is not British) was based on document and/or interview data. All participants' names have been replaced with pseudonyms to ensure their anonymity.

4.2.1 Case 1: Christina

Christina was a lecturer in engineering who had been working in her current university for less than two years. She had over 15 years of teaching experience in higher education both in the UK and overseas. She was teaching a 15-month master's programme comprising eight compulsory units, a professional placement and a dissertation. The subject field of the programme was relatively new in her discipline, and had a large non-UK student cohort. However, it was expected to attract UK students in the not too distant future as it had recently been accredited by the relevant professional bodies. The aim of the programme was to provide a core set of concepts, and challenged students to apply existing approaches to contemporary issues in the subject field which was highly multidisciplinary. The assessment involved essays, oral presentations and written reports;

yet, all units put significantly more weight on written assessment (70 – 100%). In total 34 students were enrolled, and all of them were non-UK students. Christina identified herself as an L2 English speaker. She was also the Director of Studies for a master's programme at the time of the interview.

4.2.2 Case 2: Peter

Peter was a probationary lecturer and relatively new to his university. Although he had been teaching as a lecturer only for about a year, he had over 10 years of experience as a researcher in the field of engineering. He also had some teaching experience from his previous institution where he had taught a small group of part-time master's students (maximum 15 people). However, those students from the previous institution were mostly British professionals with extensive experience in the field of health and medicine. In his current university, Peter was taking a compulsory training course for most probationary lecturers offered by the institution at the time of the interview. However, he was only taking some components rather than the complete course as some units had been waived because of his previous teaching experience. As a probationary lecturer, he was joint teaching the units with another, experienced, lecturer. Peter was teaching a 12-month master's programme comprised of nine compulsory units and a dissertation. The programme aimed to provide opportunities for students to gain experience in the subject field, and develop their creativity and project management skills in a transdisciplinary setting. The assessment involved coursework, individual and group projects, and examinations. The coursework mainly involved maths, physics and technical reports, but second semester units involved more written assessment and practical application of the skills the students had learnt through the course. In total five students were enrolled, all of whom were non-UK students. Peter identified himself as an L1 English speaker.

4.2.3 Case 3: Wendy

Wendy was a lecturer in natural science who had been working in her current university for over 5 years. She had over 20 years of teaching experience in higher education, mainly in the UK. She was teaching a four-year undergraduate master's degree programme in natural science which aimed to prepare students for a wide range of academic and industrial careers in the subject field. The study particularly focused on

the final year which was comprised of seven compulsory units, including advanced chemistry research. As a master's degree, the programme focused more on learning cutting-edge topics in research and developing advanced practical techniques in the discipline compared to its three-year BA programme. The assessment was largely based on examinations (50-100%) along with some coursework and oral presentations. The coursework mainly involved maths, physics, lab work and technical reports. In total, 43 students were enrolled, approximately 20% of whom were non-UK students. Wendy identified herself as an L1 English speaker. She was also the Associate Dean of Research at the time of the interview.

4.2.4 Case 4: Nancy

Nancy was a senior teaching fellow in computer science who had been working in her current university for over 10 years. She had more than 10 years of teaching experience in higher education mainly in the UK. She was teaching a 12-month master's programme comprised of five compulsory units, four optional units, and a dissertation. The programme aimed to prepare students for a range of careers in the specific subject area. The assessment involved coursework, individual and group projects, and examinations. The coursework mainly involved programming, system design and evaluation. However, most units required the students to write technical reports, and the compulsory ones in particular involved more written assessment. In total seven students were enrolled, most of whom were non-UK students. Nancy identified herself as an L2 English speaker. She was also the Director of Studies for an undergraduate programme at the time of the interview.

4.2.5 Case 5: George

George was a lecturer in international studies who had been working in his current university for less than two years. He had over 6 years of teaching experience in higher education both in the UK and overseas. He was teaching a 12-month master's programme comprised of four compulsory units with six optional units and a dissertation. The programme aimed to provide opportunities for students to develop their understanding and critical awareness of current issues, and enable students to apply knowledge and techniques to advanced research in their subject field. The assessment involved coursework, which mainly comprised essays and seminars. In total five students

were enrolled, most of whom were non-UK students. George identified himself as a bilingual speaker of English and Spanish. He did not specify whether he was L1 or L2. He was also the Director of Studies for the programme at the time of the interview.

4.2.6 Case 6: Frank

Frank was a lecturer in sports studies who had been working in his current university for over 5 years. He had over 4 years of teaching experience in higher education only in the UK at the time of the interview. He was teaching a 4-year undergraduate honours degree programme which aimed to provide opportunities for students to understand the relationship between various sports issues and society, and develop critical research skills for a wide range of academic and professional careers in the subject field. The final year was comprised of one compulsory unit, two optional units and a dissertation. The assessment involved essays, examinations, seminars, poster presentations, and oral presentations, but all units in the final year put significant weight on the written assessment. In total 221 students were enrolled, approximately 3% of whom were non-UK students. Frank identified herself as an L1 English speaker.

4.2.7 Case 7: Robyn

Robyn was a lecturer in education who had been working in her current university for less than a year. She had over 10 years of teaching experience in higher education both in the UK and overseas. She was teaching a 12-month master's programme comprised of eight compulsory units and a dissertation. The programme aimed to provide opportunities for students to develop their understanding of theoretical and practical issues in the field of language learning and teaching. The assessment was mainly based on essays. In total, approximately 21 students were enrolled, the majority of whom were non-UK students. Robyn identified herself as an L1 English speaker.

4.2.8 Case 8: Olivia

Olivia was a lecturer in psychology who had been working in her current university for less than two years. She had over 4 years of teaching experience in higher education only in the UK at the time of the interview. She was teaching a 3-year undergraduate honours degree programme which aimed to provide opportunities for students to understand the complex interactions between brain functions and human behaviour and

experience, as well as to develop practical skills to design and conduct academic and empirical research in the field of psychology. The programme consisted of core units which concentrated on the key requirements of the British Psychological Society (BPS) syllabus, and optional units where students could learn more specialised subject areas that their staff had expertise in. The assessment involved essays, examinations, practical reports and oral presentations, but the final year put significant weight on written assessment, including a dissertation. The number of students enrolled in the programme was not available, but according to Olivia, approximately 60 students were registered in the third year, and 30% of them were non-UK students. She identified herself as an L1 English speaker.

4.3 Findings for RQ 1a: the concept of ‘the international’

This section presents the themes which emerged from the documents and interviews regarding the concept of the international in a broad and particular teaching context of each participant. The themes were selected based on the frequency as well as the emphasis shown in the documents and the participants' responses in the IDIs.

4.3.1 Having a wide range of networks

Peter, George and Olivia put a strong emphasis on building a wide range of academic and professional networks beyond the national border in relation to their concept of ‘the international’.

For instance, Peter stated that both academics and students were strongly encouraged by the department to attend and participate as many international conferences or competitions as possible to gain experience and form a solid network with colleagues and peers from around the world. However, he pointed out that it was relatively easy for British academics to network with people from Europe due to geographical closeness. Thus, from his perspective, having “good, strong links with people outside the EU” was crucial to being international.

Good, strong links with people outside the EU - that would be how I think of it [being international]. It's easier for us to form links with people in the EU. It's a shorter travel time. Urm, so, and generally that's you happened to bump into

them whereas forming strong links with people from other side of the world can be more difficult. (Peter, IDI)

This Peter's attention to a range of academic networks, which was also keenly pursued by his department, contrasted with 'the internationality' depicted in Peter's programme brochure where a great deal of emphasis on the worldwide reputation of research and teaching quality (see Table 6).

Table 6. The Concept of 'the International' in Peter's Programme Brochure

Concept(s)	Context of use	Number of appearances
	To emphasise:	*Brochure
Being recognised worldwide	Research quality Teaching quality Programme quality	10
Being beyond the national boundary	Career opportunity Professional networks and partnerships	2
Diversity of nationalities	University-community	3

* The programme brochure for postgraduate taught programmes in the engineering faculty

George also regarded that forming academic links across the globe was a vital component of an international outlook of his programme because although his expertise lay in European issues, his subject field covered political issues in many other countries, including Asia, Australia and Latin America. Table 7 shows that this global partnership was also highlighted in the documents to address the international aspects of the programme.

Table 7. The Concept of 'the International' in George's Programme Brochure and Website

Concept(s)	Context of use	Number of appearances	
	To emphasise:	Brochure	Website
Being recognised worldwide	Programme quality Academics' expertise	2	3
Being beyond the national boundary	Career opportunities Professional and academic partnerships	2	4
Diversity of nationalities	Student body	1	1

Moreover, there was a particular emphasis on the partnership with non-European countries in addition to that of Europe where a range of career and learning opportunities was described:

[Our programme] offers a distinctive focus on [subject area], with academic expertise in both international and European [contexts]. (George, Brochure)

Our department has links with ... Erasmus partner institutions, as well as universities in Country A [Eurasia] and B [Latin America]. (George, Website)

[Our students] ... engage in fieldwork abroad, especially in the countries of the European Union, but also in Country A [Eurasia], Latin America and Country C [North America]. (George, Website)

In Olivia's concept of 'the international', such a distinction between European and non-European elements was not evident. However, she shared a similar view with Peter and George in that she also considered having research partnerships, as well as being able to publish one's work outside the UK as important aspects of 'being international' in her field of study.

What makes 'international' in this field ... I guess having connections outside of your own country. Yeah, having a connection of, urm -- doing research in another country [...] and publishing, now, a journal called International Review for Sociology of Sport - so in that sense, I think the reason it's international because it publishes, regularly publishes research from different countries and cultures. (Olivia, IDI)

Overall, there were individual differences in the range of 'international' partnership, but having a broad academic and professional network was a crucial component of the participants' concept of 'the international'.

4.3.2 Having widely applicable practices

The findings show that the concepts of 'the international' of Peter, Wendy and Robyn involved the idea of disciplinary practices being applicable beyond the national border.

As for instance, regarding the international aspects of her specific discipline, Wendy mainly considered a range of practices shared by the disciplinary community. In the

interview, she described her subject field as “intrinsically international” because it was a common practice for people in her discipline to work and communicate with people of various cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Wendy also emphasised that scientists in her field, in particular, were not overly concerned about “national boundaries” when it comes to their disciplinary practice. For instance, she stated that, as members of her disciplinary community of practice, they were expected to share their work through two prominent journals in her field, which were based in the US and Germany respectively.

We are so intrinsically 'international'. Urm, the researcher in [her specific discipline] knows no national boundaries. To take a trivial example, uh, the journals in which [researchers] would tend to want to publish their best research are ones in the US and ones in Germany. These, these are the subject standards. (Wendy, IDI)

However, she did not consider the fact that English being used as “an international language of science” to be a particular international feature of her discipline. Instead, she put more emphasis on the nature of interaction amongst her disciplinary community, which typically comprised of people from around the world.

We - as always in this country - we don't know how lucky we are — having the international language of science being English. So, we can just do this. But, some, in terms of our interactions, in terms of the conferences we go to are very international. Urm, both in terms of welcoming colleagues to conferences around here and/or attending elsewhere. So, very, very international outlook in this discipline. (Wendy, IDI)

Olivia also considered that publishing one’s work in international journals as one of many indicators of the internationality in her field of study as shown in the previous section. Yet, she suggested that such practice as an additional effort to become ‘international’ whereas Wendy’s comment indicated that she perceived it – that is, publishing via international journals - as an intrinsic practice amongst her disciplinary community.

In a similar manner, Peter also considered the applicability of disciplinary practice in his concept of ‘the international’, but, again, he stressed that the range should be beyond not only the UK, but also European borders. For example, by comparing oil and gas

sectors from manufacturing in his discipline, and Peter stated that the latter was considered a less internationalised area than the former because its practice was centralised in Europe more than in other parts of the world.

Say things like, urm, for instance, the oil and gas sector is incredibly internationalised. I mean they would be all over the world. Things like manufacturing, I think, is more EU centric, just simply because -- I mean I say this, but I'm not completely sure. The impression I get, urm -- just because there are people who manufacture locally so it's easier to, you know, go and visit them. (Peter, IDI)

On the other hand, by giving examples of ‘international’ programmes in her field of study, Robyn stated that “being globally oriented” – which she was referring to having a perspective that “looking at a global community, not just your own national domestic needs” - was the core feature of her concept of the international.

4.3.3 “Being recognised” worldwide

The component that most concerned Christina and Frank in terms of their conceptualisation of ‘the international’ was a worldwide reputation of the institution and/or individual academics.

For example, in the context of ‘international’ universities, Christina considered the number of non-UK students and how well the institution was “recognised internationally” as the indicators of internationality. Nevertheless, she suggested that some of the requirements to achieve global reputation were often more difficult to manage compared to increasing non-UK student enrolment. Such requirements included “an element of time” - by which she was referring to the length of time that the institution had lived up to its professional reputation, a research partnership with reputable organisations, and the size of the university.

The most well-known universities if you look them - Harvard, Cambridge - they are like the universities that there have been there for a long, long time. Well, there is an element of time that is, uh, an important variable in terms of making you international. [...] And there is research element of it as well, you know. Who are we partnering with - so, ‘Do people know that we exist?’ But being -- and there is another. Being medium size of university, [...] you are limited in terms of,

uh, the amount of links you can develop because the amount of research that you develop with international partners is limited to and directly related to the amount of staff you have. (Christina, IDI)

On the other hand, Frank put more emphasis on the worldwide reputation of individual academics than that of institutions. He reported that his institution, in particular, encouraged academics to take a strategical approach in terms of forming partnerships outside the UK rather than regard it as a corollary to individual lecturers' research activities. That is, academics had to consider the factors to help them "to be known more places across the world" in addition to their research drives.

I'm aware of that the university wants me to internationalise my reputation, so, to be known in more places across the world - and that's a key thing. So, I have to strategically then try to do that as well. So, not just being driven by my research goals and my research interests, and my kind of desires to understand my topic better, but actually thinking where should I -- who do I need to meet with and where, and what are the benefits of that. (Frank, IDI)

4.3.4 Being heterogeneous

Nancy, George and Olivia considered ethnic and nationality differences of student and/or staff bodies to be one of the important components in their concepts of 'the international'. This component was distinguished from that of 'cultural diversity', which is presented in the next subsection, because these participants focused explicitly on geographical differences of the students and/or staff rather than their cultural experience and knowledge.

For example, Nancy found it difficult to give a response in relation to the international aspects of her particular discipline while there was hardly any depiction of international features of the programme in the document data. Nevertheless, she stated that the diversity of students' nationalities would be a vital indicator of the department or programme's internationality.

Oh, if you say the department is international, my interpretation is - it has students from different part of the world. That's it. [...] So, in [my country], when I went to university, I think there was one classmate that was from Chile ... I think. That's it, everybody was [from the same country as mine]. So, I wouldn't classify it as being international or tell my course was international. (Nancy, IDI)

She also often emphasised the diversity of nationalities of her colleagues in the discussion of internationality of her department.

We have even, among the lecturers here, the staff - I haven't calculate - but I would say at least half of them are not British. We are very international. Let me see, [...] Four British, three - one Russian, one Brazilian, one Belgian in this corridor. And I could go with other staff above here [raised a finger, pointing upstairs]. (Nancy, IDI)

Olivia, on the other hand, put less emphasis on the nationality of students than having worldwide partnerships in relation to her concept of ‘the international’, but she reported that her university regarded a large number of non-UK students as a crucial international indicator. In particular, it was observed that in the programme brochure, the diversity of the student body was highlighted by emphasising the number of enrolled students from EU and non-EU countries separately while a range of opportunities for career development and study exchange programme was stressed by its availability in USA and Asia in addition to European countries. However, this separate emphasis on European and non-European students was changed in the recent programme brochure as shown in Table 8.

Table 8. The Description of an International Outlook of Olivia's University in the Brochure

Year	Descriptions*
2016/17	... students from 30 different European countries, as well as students from 90 other countries from around the world ...
	... opportunities to study [...] whether that be in Europe, or further afield in the USA or Asia.
2017/18	... students from a wide range of countries around the world
	... opportunities to study [...] here in Europe or further afield in the USA, Asia or Australia

* The numbers shown in the table are approximations to ensure the anonymity of the institution

In the meantime, George considered his discipline was “very international” because of the diversity of nationalities of the staff body, but he placed the emphasis on the inclusion of “people who are not Anglo-Saxon” in the network.

We also teach languages and we also teach [the subject] in French, in German, in whatever. That means we actually need to actively hire people who are not Anglo-Saxon. So, we are very international, nationality-wise. (George, IDI)

He argued that his particular subject area had been “very Anglo-Saxon” dominated although his field nowadays increasingly dealt with issues in much larger and broader contexts than the Western world. Therefore, he proposed that such a changing landscape of the subject field should be reflected in the concept of the international of his disciplinary community.

As I said, some of my colleagues, their fields of expertise are other parts of the world. [...] and obviously increasingly there are changes in the literature. Our Chinese colleagues are becoming much more active in coming to international conferences, uh, in bringing non-Anglo-Saxon-centred visions to the table in our journals and et cetera, so I think there is -- uh, I think the field is becoming more diverse. (George, IDI)

4.3.5 Having students with diverse cultural backgrounds

The diverse cultural backgrounds of student were one of the most frequently emerged components across the participants in the discussion of their concept of ‘the international’. Nevertheless, some participants focused on the differences per se while others paid more attention to the benefits that such cultural diversity brought into the classroom.

For instance, Christina frequently commented during the interview on the variety of learning style preferences and discipline-specific knowledge due to the diverse cultural background of her non-UK students. Regarding the former (i.e. the varied learning style preferences), she did not consider it to be a significant issue in teaching and learning the subject area because, from her perspective, it could be worked out by lecturer and students understanding each other through open communication.

When you teach people from ten different countries, there is only so much you can do to understand their background and how they learn to learn [...] I think the main thing that you get [...] is this hierarchy between - ‘I am the lecturer and you are the student’. And I break that, I try to break that. So, now we work together, right? For you, for me to be able to do my job, you need to understand

what I am expecting from you. For me to do that, I need to talk to you or I need you to allow you to approach me at any time. (Christina, IDI)

However, the latter (i.e. differences in discipline-specific knowledge) was perceived as a disadvantage for students who might find it more difficult to familiarise such information than UK students. Giving land and building regulations as examples, Christina reported that differences in such culture-specific as well as discipline-specific knowledge were potentially “problematic” in certain areas of her discipline. This relation between her concept of ‘the international’ and the differences of culture-specific knowledge was evidently shown in the following comments as she juxtaposed it with the universality of her discipline-specific feature (i.e. maths):

The subject [I am teaching] is very, uh -- because it's rational, and it's maths-based, it doesn't matter where you came from. Maths is maths everywhere in the world. There isn't element of culture in this discipline. But there is in the discipline where they develop this project, right, because [...] this is a British project. People come with their own background in terms of design, and that could be problematic, urm, if you don't understand the way people think, in the UK, about properties and buildings. But in my discipline specific, urm, the 'international' is not an issue. (Christina, IDI)

Also, it is noteworthy to point out that having different culture-specific disciplinary knowledge and being recognised across the world were strongly associated with Christina’s concept of ‘the international’, but the former was mainly considered as a challenge of being international programme whereas the latter was discussed as the essential for her institution and programme to be international.

In a similar way, Wendy’s concept of ‘the international’ was associated with being not familiar with the local language and culture. For instance, in the context of her university, Wendy perceived the international (students) as “non-native speakers” of English, and reported that they often found it hard to comprehend her speech. She speculated that the main reason for such a difficulty might be due to her regional accent, which was commonly characterised as being difficult to understand in the UK:

People from [my region], when they get fast, their accent just broadens a little bit. The words start rolling into each other, pronunciation goes a little bit more fluid ... and that can be really difficult to understand. (Wendy, IDI)

Thus, she said that she often consciously took different approaches, such as to change her intonation or slow down her speech, when she interacted with L2 English students.

Regarding this adjustment, however, she considered it “very unfair” since not all L2 English students would have a comprehension issue with her distinctive accent while there were some UK students who also struggle to understand her regional accent. Nonetheless, she suggested that it might be a regrettable necessity in her practice to minimise the risk of miscommunication between her and L2 English students.

This is a terrible thing to admit -- I believe that my intonation when I'm speaking individually to a non-UK student does change slightly. I try to slow down a little bit, and that might be very unfair on people whose English is probably better than mine. But I do-, I try to do just a tiny bit clear, a tiny bit more slowly. Now, that may not -- may or may not a good practice. I just hope it avoids any issue with people of non-native speakers maybe lose some of the stuff - [speaking fast in her regional accent] 'If I really talk like that'. (Wendy, IDI)

Here, it should be noted that although Wendy used the phrase “a non-UK student” in the above comment, she was referring to L2 English students considering that “non-native speaker(s)” was often used interchangeably in her responses during the interview. However, her attention slightly shifted from linguistic differences to cultural differences when she discussed the international aspects of her class. For example, she stated that she often, albeit inadvertently, used cultural references in her lectures, which she perceived as a “bad” practice.

I also find myself actually being aware of the colloquialisms more, you know. The sort of, urm, cultural references that would be natural for somebody who has been living in this country for 25 years. Which for somebody who has been living this country for 2 years, it would not be a natural reference. TV programmes -- These references, I can't help myself. I drop these references, TV programmes or pop stars [...] in the class environment, that's bad. (Wendy, IDI)

In the above comment, her concept of international students also shifted from “non-native speakers” to non-British students. Another interesting finding in Wendy’s case was the change in her perspective of “bad” practice in multicultural settings. For example, earlier she considered that adjusting her speech for L2 English students was her being over-conscious of their unfamiliarity to British regional accent, and therefore regarded

as “a dreadful practice”. On the other hand, regarding not altering her use of cultural references during the lecture, she considered it as being ignorant of non-UK students’ unfamiliarity with British culture, and thus also a “bad” practice. Wendy acknowledged the importance of intercultural adjustment in her teaching practice, and therefore she always tried to “translate [her] awareness into the most optimal actions”. However, she found it “very difficult to judge” if her choice was indeed the best choice for that moment, which showed the complexity that academics could experience with incorporating the concept of the international into their academic practice.

On the other hand, George, Frank, and Robyn highlighted the value of different cultural knowledge and perspectives of non-UK students as useful resources in the classroom. For instance, George stressed that being international was more than simply recognising the differences and similarities, but “not seeing [them] as an issue or barrier”. He suggested that “our cultures are not that different” from each other, yet people tended to focus more on differences than similarities. As an example, he described that “family ties” were often perceived as a strong Mediterranean trait in the Anglo-Saxon culture. However, he argued that such trait was, in fact, to be found in many other countries because fundamentally what people “hold dear” was similar.

A lot of these things that Anglo-Saxon says, 'Oh so special, Chinese culture!' - it's EXACTLY the same ... as the things we hold dear in [my home country]. So, I don't find that, uh, different in any way. [...] There are actually a lot of similarities of family or family ties, the importance of family, uh, all of that is very Mediterranean, and it's very Asian and it's very Latin American and African as well, actually. [...] So, I think for me 'international' is - that is being able to see all these similarities or these commonalities. And not seeing that as an issue or as a barrier. (George, ID1)

He also stated that the topics portrayed in the literature and media in his subject field were often “very polarizing between the West and the Rest” in general. However, those topics were often too complex to understand from such a dichotomous view, and therefore, from his perspective, having students with different cultural backgrounds was a great educational benefit because the culturally-informed perspectives they brought into the discussion could enable the students (both UK and non-UK) to look at the fundamental of the issues.

All of the debates in the literature are very polarizing. They are very polarizing between the West and the Rest [...] this is much deeper, much more complex than what we're able to see in the media or even often what the politicians will portray. So, I think that's where the enrichment of having an international student body and international vision comes in and being able to realise that, urm, you know, that we need to have a broader vision to solve a lot of these [issues]. (George, IDI)

Robyn also stressed the value of “what [non-UK] students are bringing to the university” in terms of achieving internationalisation. She reported that her field of study, which focused on language education and practice, frequently discussed the issues related to learning and teaching in international settings. Therefore, from her perspective, the diverse learning and teaching experience of non-UK students encouraged the students (both UK and non-UK) to explore and understand the issue from various point of view.

Table 9 shows that Robyn’s university also put a great emphasis on the cultural multiplicity of students and academic staff, and “the breadth and depth of its research collaborations”, to use a phrase which appeared on Robyn’s university website.

Table 9. The Concept of ‘the International’ in Robyn's Programme Brochure and Website

Type of concept	Context of use	Number of appearances	
		Brochure	Website
Being recognised worldwide	To emphasise: Research quality Teaching quality	2	1
Beyond the national boundary	Career development opportunities Student body	1	3
Nationality and cultural diversity	University-community Academic network	2	5

Nevertheless, Robyn pointed out that such wealth of knowledge and experience brought by non-UK students was often disregarded in the context of internationalisation of UK higher education. She argued that the universities might highly regard a “diverse range of cultural and linguistic backgrounds” of students, but, concurrently, perceived them as “empty vessels” that needed to be filled with “Anglo-knowledge”.

They [the universities] would need to stop ... looking at the international students as the source of income -- urm, looking at them as kind of people that come with no knowledge of, and we have to fill with our kind of - in this case UK-centred, you know, Anglo-knowledge, then send them back to their countries to be international. [...] I think that's a kind of horrible way to look at internationalisation. (Robyn, IDI)

Furthermore, Frank also appreciated the aspects of having students from different cultural backgrounds. Referring to his summer school class where the majority of students were non-UK, he stated that their different perspectives on the topic often changed the dynamics in the classroom, as well as helped him widen his understanding of the issue they were discussing.

We're just talking about some of the issues around like, urm, performance of gender, and just chatting through some of the examples of my research. And one of the [research students] is, urm, a teacher in Dubai. And she was saying [...] 'You know what? it's really interesting because you're saying the same sort of things, but when I see the young females that I'm teaching - the young women I'm teaching, I don't think they would understand'. It was just that difference, and I thought, actually it made the conversation so much more diverse! Because my research hasn't taken me there. I can start to make some kind of - read other people's work, but the hearing from the students and their experiences was really important and it did change the dynamic. Because you don't take anything for granted. You can't have those assumptions because it could be different in different places. (Frank, IDI)

Regarding the international aspects of his discipline, Frank stressed the importance of an ability to consider the same issue “in different places around the world” and “different kind of cultures” because cultural and social variables could have a significant impact on the understanding or interpretation of the phenomenon.

These are the phenomena as they play out in a particular context and a particular moment. And so, we talk a lot about research all the time, and we must contextualise qualitative findings. It's not about generalising, is it? It's about kind of just theorising from a particular context. (Frank, IDI)

However, referring to his regular undergraduate classes where most students were “white British”, Frank reported that the students often found it challenging to take different perspectives on certain topics, such as religion and race.

Most of my undergraduate students are white British. And we start talking about, urm, issues around inequity or inequality in sport and health around social class, race, ethnicity, sexuality – and they get the sort of social class arguments. When it comes to religion, ethnicity, race, they really struggle to think critically about it. And they really struggle to actually engage like a, urm, critical argument as opposed to just throwing out sort of some stereotypes that might exist in sport. (Frank, IDI)

Concerning this matter, he shared a similar view as George's by stating that an ability to take non-Anglophone view might be needed to achieve an "international perspective". He said that there was increasing awareness amongst the researchers in his field of study, but the vast majority of the current "international network" in his discipline community mainly consisted of Anglophone countries.

We've just got editing the book at the moment where we're trying to bring together -- the global north and global south of [researchers in his specific subject area] recognising that often, we get into this very nice and tidy international network, but that just means America and Australia, perhaps Canada and New Zealand. And so, actually thinking about what that means in terms of international perspective. (Frank, IDI).

4.3.6 Using English as the main language of communication

In this study, English language in relation to the concept of 'the international' was addressed by only two participants: Nancy and Robyn.

As for instance, Nancy posited a view that using English as a medium of learning and teaching alone may not make the university or programme international, but it can be one of the key features of "international universities". This was because such features would attract "international group of lecturers and researchers, and postdocs", which she considered important to maintain and develop the international outlook of the department or programme. This can be related back to another component of her concept of 'the international', which was discussed in the earlier section – having a diversity of nationalities within the student and staff bodies.

In addition, it should be noted that her emphasis on English as an international element was more associated with the language commonly used in an international context than

L1 English variety which is discussed more in section 4.4 where her concept of appropriate English use is presented.

By the fact that we lecture in English and students are expected to have English as a second language, at least. These make it potentially international - see I have to be careful - 'potentially' international in a sense that it -- we attract the people from different part of the world because English is considered international language. A language that is -- the common language that people speak. So, I know that international universities in other countries basically the language they use is English. Yeah, this is what I understand about international. (Nancy, IDI)

Robyn also reported that the concept of the international in her discipline was strongly associated with “Englishisation of education”.

To be honest, International education in Education means English education. So, it's very much tied to the language. Urm, whenever they talk about internationalisation in education, they're talking about Englishisation of education. (Robyn, IDI)

While Robyn’s view on “Englishisation” was mostly related to using English as a medium of instruction and communication, her focus on English language was mostly related to discipline-specific conventions, which are presented in section 4.4.

4.4 Findings for RQ 1b: the concept of appropriate English use

This section presents the themes which emerged from IDIs and VIs regarding the expected English usage in each participant’s discipline and/or programme. Each theme was identified based on the frequency and the emphasis shown in the participants' responses in the interviews. The chosen themes are presented in two categories: speaking and writing.

4.4.1 Speaking

4.4.1.1 Ability to communicate disciplinary knowledge (SPK)

The intelligibility of speech was frequently discussed by Christina, Peter, Wendy, George, and Nancy in association with their concepts of ‘appropriate’ English use in speaking.

As for instance, commenting on Vignette 3, Christina assumed that unconventional speech might be associated with the informal style of language. Yet, she stressed that informality in speech would not be considered a significant issue unless it was specified as one of the marking components in her programme.

It depends on what was on, urm, the evaluation. In our presentations, we never assess the style of language, but we, urm, assess objectivity in the presentation. [...] it is very engineering-led, perhaps it's easier to get the students to talk about what is needed -- what the results were and et cetera. (Christina, VI)

Nevertheless, when the unconventionality interfered with the intelligibility of speech, it was considered more disadvantageous than the same issue in writing. This was because, according to her, the written work in her discipline commonly entailed drawings which would assist readers' understanding of the message whereas the general working environment in her subject field required constant communication with people who might not share the same language background. Therefore, she highly valued the clarity of the message in her evaluation of her students' spoken discourse.

Peter also stated that if unconventionality significantly interfered with the intelligibility of speech or text, the former would be considered more problematic than the latter in his discipline. The reason for this was similar to that of Christina, as he emphasised that many real-life projects in his field involved constant communication with the members of the project. According to him, an oral presentation in his programme was often set to help the students understand the topic they were studying, but also to help them develop their communication skills.

So, if they are doing a presentation, it would help their understanding, but at the same time communication skills are important aspect to this task. [...] So, I think, you know, it's fair that, uh, one of their requirements that they are understood and -- but that doesn't mean it's gotta be perfect. They just need to be clear and, you know, that can be done in many ways. (Peter, VI)

However, he stressed that verbalisation was not the only way to ensure the intelligibility in spoken discourse.

I think good communication doesn't necessarily mean using, urm, typical words. I've seen people communicate incredibly well with very little English. Just because they have really clear facial expressions and hand gestures or they're writing equations down that are familiar - because that's the beauty of maths, isn't it? (Peter, VI)

Referring to one of the international conferences he attended, for example, he reported that it was not uncommon to see the presenters' level of English proficiency causing difficulties in understanding their speech. However, he did not regard it as a significant issue since in most cases, their slides and body language were effectively used to help the audience follow the speakers' reasoning and key ideas.

I would say more common is that when someone's presenting, [...] you can usually understand the slides - but the spoken English is quite poor. So, you can't follow the words, but you can follow the slides. But I would say, most of the time people make it. (Peter, IDI)

Peter also added that unconventional language use in spoken discourse was typically less strictly judged than that of writing.

I think if you have unconventional language use in speaking but you're understandable ... that's fine. That won't inhibit you. If people can understand what you're talking about, it's not a problem. If you have an unconventional writing style, I think that could inhibit you. Because people are so strict about the way that things are written. (Peter, VI)

Such differences in attitude between spoken and written language use were also addressed by Wendy. She pointed out that people were likely to pay more attention and criticise the unconventionalities in writing than in speaking although they might be still considered inappropriate in both contexts.

You're more often assessed on the way you should express things in writing. If your slides are good, well-structured, if your results are good and you state those clearly, then colloquialism, inappropriate, urm, expressions, et cetera -- use of 'I' is much, it is much normal, [...] people would naturally fall into doing it. (Wendy, VI)

Moreover, Wendy regarded the structure of slides as a more important element than the style of speech in the evaluation of her students' disciplinary spoken discourse. For

instance, as commenting on Vignette 3, Wendy argued that if Marion's (the student in Vignette 3) presentation had had well-structured slides and evidence of critical analysis as described in the vignette, the unconventionality which Remy identified could be "a much less important element" than others that ensured the conveyance of his intended message. This was because, according to her, people could only concentrate for a limited amount of time, and particularly in academic presentations, it was often not easy to understand the complexity of disciplinary knowledge simply by listening to the talk.

We do actually care quite a lot about, about the structure of slides in my discipline. And the rational is, urm, however good the concentration of an audience, they quite often don't tune in fully to what's being said. [...] But the slides are well-structured? So, chance that even if you would express things slightly oddly, the audiences are still getting quite a lot out of what just - what you were saying, you know. (Wendy, VI)

Thus, she stated that the slides in oral presentations were often regarded as a useful aid in her discipline to help the audience to better understand the speakers' intended message.

Similar to Wendy's case, Nancy reported that some unconventionalities were likely to be overlooked in oral assessment in her programme unless they caused a serious intelligibility issue.

We probably had some problems with spoken English. I don't think we addressed them. [...] Yes, we could notice that there were some problems, but I don't think we - yeah, it's funny to tell you - I don't think we included. [...] I think we had the marking scheme and maybe we deducted on the communication. Well, but this is my -- this is what we haven't done. We haven't done that. (Nancy, VI)

However, she also found it "awkward" to engage with her students' spoken English issues as she considered her spoken English to be "not perfect". Although she did not perceive her spoken English usage as inappropriate or disadvantageous in her teaching context, she did not show the same confidence as she was discussing the unconventionalities in disciplinary writing.

Now, with the writing, I know exactly what to do. With spoken English, I don't know. I think it's a bit delicate, I would say. It's a little delicate issue if I have to

tell someone to improve their spoken English. I'm not used to do that. [...] I think I feel a little bit awkward maybe because I'm [an L2 speaker] and maybe my English is not perfect. So, it's like, telling someone that you need to improve your communication skills, but mine is not as good either. (Nancy, VI)

Moreover, her stronger attention to written language than spoken language use in terms of her concept of appropriate English use was closely associated with the communal practice of her disciplinary community. For instance, she argued that an academic's ability to speak fluently was a "low priority" compared to their researching and writing ability in her discipline.

[My discipline] is all about writing papers and publishing. You can tell. They have to be good at writing, and speaking English is not that -- I know because, I don't hire people here, but I know when lecturers are hired, this is what they value. Is this person with a track record of written publication? Has this person published a lot in good journals? The language is not that important although it will be a problem when they teach. But this is a low priority. (Nancy, VI)

George also emphasised that it was quite common in his discipline to hire experts using "heavily accented English" and "not perfect" grammar, yet those features did not affect other's perception on their expertise on the subject area.

Now, because my personal discipline [...] is international. Even in Britain we have a lot of colleagues from other parts of the world - we have the department that wants to teach Chinese politics, want to teach Indian politics, etc. And very often they would recruit people from those countries because they are the experts and sometimes they are -- they speak very heavily accented English. Sometimes their grammars are not perfect and yet, nobody questions their ability to teach the subject or their academic standing. (George, VI)

Therefore, he considered that informality, although it is considered unconventional, would be "less of an issue" if the intended message was understood without significant difficulties. Nevertheless, he stressed that students who used "the appropriate language" should be recognised for their efforts and ability in language use.

I don't think that it should necessarily be very heavily penalised in terms of subtraction of mark, I do think if somebody else's doing it and using the appropriate language, uh, they should be commended on it, and they should be told you doing this very well and yes, in if that translates to one or two extra

points, fine. But I don't think it should necessarily deduct points if that make sense. (George, VI)

Overall, there was a consensus view amongst the five participants that an ability to communicate clearly without significant confusion was an important aspect of appropriate spoken discourse.

4.4.1.2 Discipline-specific terminology and expressions

Christina, Frank, and Robyn regarded that using discipline-specific terminology and expressions as an important element of their concepts of appropriate spoken English use. For example, using terminology was considered crucial in both spoken and written communication in Christina's discipline, but she argued that it was particularly important in spoken discourse because her discipline was "heavily based on communication".

When you're doing designing, the language -- the writing shifts to drawing and that is universal. So, everybody draws the same way everywhere. [...] Particularly in construction, in engineering, we have technical terminologies, urm, for every single part of a building. [...] You cannot say, 'that thing' [laughter]. No, you can't, you can't do that. They would use drawings to say, 'this is what I refer to' if they don't know what -- the specific terminology. But in [spoken] language, it would be more problematic. (Christina, IDI)

It was for this reason, however, she stated that it was more important for students to focus on getting the meaning across than merely using terminology in the conversation.

I recommend that they should know the terminology, but if they struggle, they go -- there is a way around. [...] I say, 'Well, explain to me what you mean if you don't know the word'. It doesn't -- it shows that you know what you are talking about. It's just you don't know the term. Then, in that context, it's not significant. (Christina, IDI)

Frank also highlighted the importance of using "particular terms and phrases" in disciplinary communication in her field of study, but it was not only to ensure the clarity of communication but also to demonstrate one's understanding of the subject area.

In terms of ... the language uses unconventional for this discipline, I think there are certain, particular terms and phrases which students are taught over a degree programme that are kind of the pivotal things. So, for example, if you're

looking at our [specific subject area], the word 'pedagogy', those sort of words, phrases, language do need to be used to demonstrate -- so I think that's part of just demonstrating an understanding of the area. So, I think the language kind of thing, there are gonna be conventional languages, or terms or phrases that need to be used. (Frank, VI)

However, from his perspective, having a “conversational tone” in the academic presentation was not considered a critical issue. Commenting on Vignette 3, Frank stated that he perceived using “conventional tone” as more of an issue of “everyday speech”, which he could take more “relaxed and lenient” approaches, than misuse of discipline-specific language use.

However, in terms of the speech needs polishing, that implies more of kind of conversational tone or -- I think I would be less critical in my marking of that in oral presentation where someone doesn't have time necessarily to step back and reflect to get different people's input on how they might phrase that better, urm, that sort of thing. [...] In terms of everyday speech, I would be more relaxed and lenient. If it's particular concept and terminology, then that needs to be there as much as written assignment as it does in an oral assignment. (Frank, VI)

On the other hand, Robyn speculated that any features that did “not suit for this discipline” would be considered unconventional, but whether such unconventionality would affect grades was determined by the focus of assessment.

If it doesn't suit for this discipline then, urm, he needs to think, 'Does that really impact the ability of him to meet the outcomes of the assignment?' If it does, then that would be considered in grading the assignment. If it doesn't then perhaps that's something that can be overlooked. (Robyn, VI)

From her perspective, the conformity to academic and disciplinary conventions in oral assessment was much less than that in written assessment. This was because, according to her, there is “a general understanding that people speak differently” whereas in writing, there are ‘correct’ and ‘incorrect’ forms being taught, particularly in educational settings.

So, people -- even people that are only grown up around in a monolingual society -- are used to this idea that people speak differently and use language differently. They see it on TV, they see it even in their own community and we, we tend not to care so much. At the moment people write something down, then suddenly it's judged for its grammatical use because written English tends to be taught

with very kind of prescriptive, standard and what's correct and what's incorrect. So even though you can say the same incorrect thing in speaking and people won't care, if you write it down suddenly people would care. So, I think the writing style is judged much more harshly. (Robyn, VI)

Overall, discipline-specific discourse conventions, whether the use of terminology or particular ways to put arguments, were considered important in those three participants' concepts of appropriate spoken English use. However, the findings also indicated that the reason why it is important to use such conventions might vary from one discipline to another.

4.4.1.3 Non-colloquial language

Olivia highly valued the use of “academic phrases” in both disciplinary speaking and writing. From her perspective, academic presentations should not be “too colloquial”, while she suggested that students might find it useful to familiar themselves with various academic phrases by using web sources, such as the Manchester University Phrasebank website.

Writing and, urm, speaking in academia typically is a bit more, urm, need more academic phrases. So, although this is a presentation, in writing, I always point students to the Manchester University Academic Phrasebank which is an amazing, urm, like, a phrasebank, full of academic phrases that students can copy and paste or use, urm. That's very useful. (Olivia, VI)

In addition, she posited the view that unconventionality in spoken English could be compensated by a speaker's strong gestures and well-structured slides, referring to the conference she recently attended.

But then I have seen poor speaking - had a conference this year and really bad spoken Chinese ... a guy who actually did a good presentation because he was enthusiastic, passionate and he pointed to the words on the slides that he needed to explain. And I understood about 70% of what he was saying. So, it is possible. (Olivia, VI)

Nevertheless, Olivia stated that both unconventional speech and writing style would be “disadvantageous in different ways” in an assessment context. In particular, she considered that the latter (i.e. unconventional writing style) would be considered more

disadvantageous than the former (i.e. unconventional style of speech) because “writing is the dominant form of assessment” in her discipline.

In psychology, there's more writing. [...] There are lots of different forms of writing-based where the presentation is only, urm -- maybe 10% of the assessment is a presentation where 90% of it is written in some forms or another whether it's a reflective diary, an essay, or research proposal ... poster. They all have much more word-based -- because writing is the dominant form of assessment in university as opposed to speaking. (Olivia, VI)

4.4.2 Writing

4.4.2.1 The third-person writing

Christina, Peter, Wendy, and Nancy considered third-person writing as one of the key aspects of written discourse in their disciplines. In particular, Christina argued that writing in the third person was widely used in her field of study because “people find it easier to understand”. According to her, students would not be penalised for using it, but they were strongly encouraged to avoid writing in the first person.

I wouldn't mark someone down because of that [writing in the first person]. I would say, you know, in the practice ... what most people use is the third person, passive voice. And you should look for that as a way, you know, people find it easier to understand. It would be unconventional to see in my discipline -- I don't think anybody would say 'I', you know. What they do is 'they say', 'author A says this, author B says that'. (Christina, VI)

On the other hand, Wendy reported that students would be penalised for using any “non-scientific” style in their writing, such as writing in the first person.

This is one of the things that one that will lose his mark and gets feedback on it in a lab report - 'Do not use 'I'. It's non-scientific', you know. It's sort of thing that in brief whenever people are introduced to what you do in scientific writing -- one of the first messages: 'Do not use 'I'. (Wendy, VI)

Giving an example of Francis Crick, a prominent scientist in her field of study, she argued that the negative attitude towards using first-person pronouns, such as *I* or *we*, was firmly established within her disciplinary community. Although people tended to be less critical of using *I* in speaking, she suggested that it would be still “frowned upon” in a professional environment.

Francis Crick, for example, who got the Nobel Prize with Watson for solving the structure of DNA - he used to write his papers in the 70s and 80s with 'I', and it grated on everybody. He's one of the most successful scientists of his generation, and it really bugged the people that he would use the word 'I'. So, it really is one of the few no-noes, I think, in science. (Wendy, VI)

Although she strongly resisted the idea of using *I* in scientific writing, she recognised the increasing use of *we* in some scientific journals. According to her, it was occasionally acceptable to use *we* if the person was representing a research group or writing the paper together with colleagues.

I hope it never gets to 'I' that being acceptable. But yeah, I think 'we' is. In fact, that I may did it in a paper with one of my students at the moment. And we're quite happy using 'we'. (Wendy, VI)

However, Nancy reported that whether writing in the first person should be considered unconventional was “debatable” in her field of study, particularly in relation to academic publishing. She suggested that the first-person writing was increasingly acceptable in her field of study because some people believed it helped “remove ambiguity” in the text.

It's changing now. There's a trend, especially coming from the U.S. I gave a talk about that, urm, for researchers, visiting researchers here [...] I had to give a talk to them and I said, 'Yeah, I noticed. I know what you mean that 'I' is becoming a little bit more acceptable in science journals. And yeah, because they believe that it removes ambiguity'. (Nancy, VI)

A similar view was expressed by Peter who also reported that clinical and medical journals in her field of study often encouraged writers to use the first person in their paper. From his perspective, it was to make the paper “more readable and accessible” to people, yet the students in his programme would be advised to avoid writing in the first person. This was because, he suggested, the first-person writing would not be recognised as appropriate in the field of engineering, as well as in the particular subject area he was teaching at the current university.

Using 'we' in your writing rather than -- so writing from the first person. It's typical and that's something which certainly the students are encouraged not to do at all. 'This experiment was done this way' rather than 'we did it this way'. Urm, I think internationally that is changing. So, a lot of the, urm, clinical

American journals that we read encouraging writers to use 'we' in their writing to make it more readable, more accessible for people, urm, but at the moment we say that it's unconventional. (Peter, VI)

Nancy did not explicitly show her stance on using first person pronouns in disciplinary writing in the interviews, but her following response to one of the VI questions indicated that she might regard first-person writing as “informal” and “a problem” that needed to be rectified.

He could [...] give her feedback on the writing style, yeah? [...] 'Well, it's too informal', let's say -- or 'You're using first person all the time and it needs to be passive voice' or whatever. You could suggest her to have a chat with ASU. So, give a concrete solution for the problem. 'This is too informal' or this is too ... whatever, it's unconventional. (Nancy, VI)

Overall, there was a consensus view amongst the above four participants that writing in the first person is, in general, considered inappropriate within their disciplinary communities. Nevertheless, their attitude towards using first-person pronouns in disciplinary writing varied, as well as the idea of its possibility to become a new disciplinary convention.

4.4.2.2 Discipline-specific terminology

Using discipline-specific terminology was highlighted by Christina, Peter and Frank as one of the important components in their concept of appropriate written English use. From Christina's perspective, in particular, improving the knowledge of terminology had a greater benefit than developing one's “daily use of language” in her subject area. According to her, many projects in her field today were increasingly carried out by a team of people with different knowledge bases and linguistic backgrounds. Therefore, she considered using proper terminology to be a safeguard to prevent miscommunication among the team members, which could “lead to errors” in the planning and execution of the project.

In either they are studying or in practice, you should be able to explain what that part of building or designing is. So, therefore, you must command the language quite well, right? Otherwise, it leads to confusion, the confusion leads to errors in design, and therefore the errors on site. And then there's a lot of waste of time, money and so on, yeah? So that is crucial. But I would say it is more important

to technical side of it than it is actually, urm, daily use of language. (Christina, IDI)

The use of precise expressions and terminology was also considered important in Peter's concept of appropriate language use in disciplinary writing. He stated that it was crucial to provide accurate information in his subject area, particularly with numerical data such as height and weight, to avoid ambiguity and misunderstanding in communication.

Urm, I don't know. I think, a lot the time in this discipline you would focus on very specific meanings. So, there would be, urm -- an inappropriate language I suppose would be to use a very vague term. So, if you mean to say, 'That's a very large book' rather than saying, 'This is a book that is 70 diagr-, 70 millimetres by 70 millimetres'. And they'd always try to be specific. (Peter, IDI)

Therefore, he suggested that using “a very vague term” or improper terminology were regarded as “inappropriate” by the majority of his disciplinary community although he personally considered that language usage would be appropriate “as long as the ideas and thoughts are conveyed”.

Furthermore, using discipline-specific “terms and phrases” was considered essential in both speaking and writing in Frank's concept of appropriate language use. Nevertheless, Frank reported that misusing discipline-specific terminology in writing would have a greater impact on one's academic success because “the dominant assessment formats are written work” whereas there were no “substantive assessments that are based on language in speaking” in his particular field of study.

4.4.2.3 Academic writing conventions

Conformity to the common academic writing conventions, such as avoid using colloquialisms and contractions, and providing empirical evidence to support an argument, was particularly highlighted by Christina, Robyn, and Olivia in relation to their concepts of ‘appropriate’ English use in writing. As for instance, Christina argued that appropriate English use in written communication involved more than producing grammatically flawless writing, such as using an introduction paragraph and topic sentence to guide readers to main ideas or arguments.

I would say 95% of all introductions [of the assignments] are incorrectly written. There's nothing wrong about the grammar or syntax -- they are okay. But then the role of introduction is specific. [...] But people get that confused with background information. And then they fell -- and it doesn't introduce anything. [...] I say, 'No, you know, introduction is where person -- where you grab attention of person to say, 'what you're gonna read next is this''. Generally, a page should do, perhaps less than a page should do depending on the, the text that you're writing. (Christina, IDI)

She considered that 'appropriateness' of language use in her discipline was judged based on one's academic communication skills rather than one's English language proficiency. Thus, from her perspective, following academic conventions was not necessarily about conforming to L1 English norms.

On the other hand, Olivia argued that English was "the most dominant academic language", and therefore the knowledge of English language was crucial for individual academics to enhance their network and academic standing in her field of study.

I'm sure there's academics still have university jobs and experienced writers publishing in their own language. At the same time, I know that English is by far the most dominant academic language by a long shot, and -- I would say if academics want to be internationally renowned then they need to publish in English or at least get - try to someone to translate it into English, yeah. [...] It opens up, like, the vast majority of, urm, jobs and journals, and more people could read it. (Olivia, IDI)

Here, she did not explicitly link 'English' to L1 English and stressed that defining appropriate English use was "a contested issue" in her discipline because the appropriateness could change depending on the chosen topic and research approach throughout the interviews. Nevertheless, she posited a view that students' written language use should meet "all standard necessity" of academic writing, regardless of their subject areas, to be considered appropriate. The examples of the standard necessity, or what she also referred to as "basics of written English" during the interviews, mainly involved the components such as using non-colloquial words, "proper" grammar and sentence structures.

When you see English that isn't appropriate, it hits you in the face and it's obvious. So, I would assume appropriate English -- it depends on what you define as appropriate English again, but if you, sort of, have it as like, not colloquial with proper grammar, sentence structures, paragraph and then meets all standard necessity, I would assume. (Olivia, IDI)

Moreover, whether the text conforms to these basic rules had a significant impact on its intelligibility from her perspective. Referring to her previous experience of marking L2 English students' work with grammar and structure issues, she reported that it was particularly challenging because she found it difficult to judge if the students were struggling with the English language or understanding the content knowledge simply based on their "poor" writing.

Their writing is sort of so poor that you can't understand what they are trying to say. So, I guess it's the challenge we try to work out. Does the student understand what I have taught and understand the course, but just writes poorly or is it just they don't understand than poor writing? Yeah, so it's tricky skills to try to work that out. [...] Sometimes it's really -- their English was not good enough. And you wonder how they actually got into university, to be honest. And they can't write - yeah, it sounds horrible, but from my experience, I think it's the truth. (Olivia, IDI)

Although she recognised the challenge of writing in a second language, she pointed out that such nonconformity to academic writing conventions could give a false impression of the students' academic knowledge and performance.

Robyn also referred to the similar features as "academic essay writing" conventions and stated that they played an important role in the evaluation of 'appropriate' language use in her field of study.

I think we're quite rigid with, urm, anything that falls outside of academic essay writing. In different disciplines that might have other styles and reports, but we definitely focused on kind of academic essays. (Robyn, VI)

According to her, there was a prevalent idea in academia that academic writing should be written in a style that people were "accustomed to seeing" within their discipline. By recalling the conversation with her colleagues from the previous institution, she added

that academics in humanities and social sciences are likely to put greater weight on “language”.

So, in my previous job, [...] I was in a lot of talks with people in different disciplines, and it was really interesting that there were some disciplines like mathematics, physics or even engineering -- they actually said they didn't care about students' language ability as long as they were able to understand the text then sit for the exams. That it was actually their knowledge of mathematics and subject area that they held in high esteem. But this is very different talking to people in humanities who always complaining, 'Oh, international students - they can't write proper essays'. (Robyn, IDI)

Particularly in her discipline, she claimed that failing to meet the expectations of the disciplinary community in terms of language use could also have a considerable impact on one's professionalism as an academic.

If I would use inappropriate language in - or inappropriate English in my discipline, it might reflect on who I am, my identity, my knowledge of the language. So, even if it's just something as simple as emails, it's important for me to think about sticking to the conventions of what people expect. In my own academic writing, I am expected to write in a certain way otherwise I won't get my papers published or people might judge inappropriate language meaning, urm, kind of lack of understanding of what's expected. (Robyn, IDI)

Overall, it was observed that all three participants associated the necessity of conformity to academic writing conventions with their particular disciplinary community rather than that of L1 English speaker. Yet, the reasons why such conformity was crucial to be recognised as appropriate in disciplinary writing varied from ensuring the intelligibility to meeting the expectations of their disciplinary communities amongst the above three participants.

4.4.2.4 “Correct” use of grammar and spelling

The use of ‘correct’ grammar was considered crucial in Christina’s and George’s concepts of appropriate written English use while the use of ‘correct’ spelling was addressed by Peter in relation to the evaluation of ‘appropriate’ disciplinary writing.

In particular, Christina claims that in her discipline, English-speaking countries were “setting the standard” as they were the leading edge of the field. Thus, although she

emphasised the importance of using discipline-specific terminology, using ‘correct’ grammar and sentence structure was also considered an essential component to determine if language usage was ‘professional’ and ‘acceptable’.

We have technique -- technical English. So, in a professional environment, you must use technical language to be understood. Urm, and obviously there is the issue of, uh, use of grammar - knowing how sentences are formed. So, that is what is appropriate English. (Christina, IDI)

George also stated that the rules and conventions of language usage within his discipline was “very English dominated” although the composition of members of its community was “very international. According to him, this was mainly because the field was by and large established and developed in English-speaking countries, such as the US, the UK and Australia.

You can be recognised without the English, but obviously in the area, a lot of the well-known, internationally recognised names are, you know, do use appropriate English. And typically, the very famous names - because it is Anglo-Saxon discipline - are still the Anglo-Saxon, the Anglo-Saxon names, I think. [...] The so-called 'bibles' of the discipline are in English and everybody will always have to go back the beginning of the discipline, and they'll always be in English, and they'll be American and British scholars. (George, IDI)

Nonetheless, by giving an example that “the Queen’s English” would not be considered more appropriate than other variations of English in the UK, he argued that appropriateness should be judged by whether the person used the register suitable for the give situation. He also reported that grammar and spelling errors were generally not regarded as a significant problem in an assessment context unless they severely compromised the intelligibility of the text. This was because, according to him, grammar errors were not necessarily associated with English proficiency issues, and therefore academics in his department were often advised to “avoid making judgements on grammar” and focus on “content and the arguments”.

I've always been told [...] to try to avoid making judgements on grammar and types of - even for the British students because of obviously issues of dyslexia, et cetera, et cetera. I think this is also with my colleagues and we discuss this with board examiners. We try to ignore that. Now, obviously if the grammar is so bad

that you can't understand then, it is going to affect the mark. [...] Urm, but I think by and large we do try to -- if we can understand it, we do try to ignore grammatical mistakes, urm, to the extent possible. (George, VI)

Yet, he recognised that there was an explicit link between using grammatically “correct” English and social respect and power.

Urm, but obviously the more grammar - the more 'correctness' in that area, the more power the language carries, and the more power that individual can hold in the way they choose to use the language. [...] in the UK, as we all know, as soon as somebody opens their mouth and there's the accent, or the word they use ... [laughter] It's even much, it's even more so -- those power relations are even more explicit than another, other languages. (George, VI)

In fact, this link between using ‘correct’ grammar and the notion of ‘appropriateness’ in terms of language use was still evident in his concept of ‘appropriate’ English use. For example, George perceived that offering additional support for L2 English scholars as one of the efforts to recognise the cultural and linguistic diversity of writers in the field of academic publishing.

Urm, there is increasing -- certainly in some of the journals, they are really trying to broaden out, not just to get more buyers in China and these places, but also to cooperate those - that scholarship in as well. I mean, I've been a referee for some of these journals and you're seeing pieces submitted where the standard of English is much, much, much weaker. [...] So, there are attempts in bridging this, and we are seeing the big journals would have some proof-readers as well and editors so they improve everybody's - standardise everybody's English, urm, make everybody's English sounds a little bit better. And you know, they are not going to publish something that grammatically incorrect or doesn't make sense. (George, IDI)

He also considered that unconventionality in writing style was not necessarily “a deal breaker” as the writer could meet the expectations around disciplinary writing by hiring professional proof-readers, such as a procedure that was also given as advice to their research students.

We've got PhD students at the moment whose English is may be - actually their spoken English is fantastic, but it's may be their written English isn't as polished and as clear as it should be. And the advisor would give you this, you know, you could, have to get a professional proof-reader to read your thesis and clean up

the grammar and some of the terms. So, it's an issue that can be solved. (George, VI)

However, the expressions such as “weaker” in Standard English and “something that grammatically incorrect”, as well as his understanding of those additional supports as the “mechanisms ... to make everybody’s English sounds a little bit better” indicated that ‘appropriateness’ of English use in his discipline was continuously judged from the “Anglo-Saxon” perspectives.

In regard of increasing attempts to be culturally inclusive in academic publishing industries, Robyn also stated that there had been a scholarly movement towards “focus[ing] more on the content” than language forms regarding academic writing and publishing. Yet, she posited the view that it would be a long-term task to shift the current attitude of the academic community towards written conventions. Therefore, although she did not fully agree with the collective notion of “what’s correct or what’s appropriate” academic language use, she stated that it was still widely accepted and even passed down to students in her discipline.

In the meantime, Peter pointed out that some academics and journals in his discipline were “strict about” using American spelling. From his perspective, however, whichever spelling system the students used was not a concern if they used one consistently throughout their paper. Nonetheless, throughout the interview, he only discussed American and Britain spelling systems as ‘appropriate’, particularly in the assessment context. Nevertheless, it was interesting to observe that Peter perceived the student’s issue with the use of the definite article as a writing style matter than a grammar mistake in the following comment:

I have a student [...] who found it really hard to know when you put ‘the’ in front of the word and when you don’t. And so, [they] either used it excessively or didn’t use it when it was needed. So, that was writing style issue that [the student] found hard to correct [...] It was just because they don’t have ‘the’ in [students’ first language]. (Peter, VI)

From his perspective, student’s writing style was developed through their language system where the notion of definite article did not exist. Therefore, although he still

recognised the issue as ‘inappropriate’ for disciplinary writing, he argued that it did not necessarily mean “wrong” or incorrect in terms of language use.

4.4.2.5 “Passive and impersonal” voice

Using impersonal and passive voice in disciplinary writing was one of the dominant components in both Wendy’s and Nancy’s concepts of appropriate English use. For instance, Wendy claimed that there was “a very formalised way of presenting the core message” in scientific writing, which was often described as “very factual” and “prosaic”.

There is very much a style that we adopted in scientific English, urm, that focuses on impersonal. So, although we sometimes deviate from it, [...] very few people deviate from that. In the professional -- in the qualified professional environment, we shouldn't, we should really not say 'we'. It should always be in the passive and impersonal. [...] In science, there's a very, very formalised way of presenting the core message and around that a little bit of flexibility, but there shouldn't be too much flexibility. (Wendy, VI)

Although she suggested that an essay project, which students in her programme rarely chose, might require slightly more skilful writing, the expectation on language use in the assessment would not be the same as that of “social science”, where she assumed that the elegance of language was valued.

I would assume that for an essay project, the quality of the expression and the sort of style of English language probably have to be slightly -- again, not to the social science level, but for an essay you have to show some sort of flow of a story. (Wendy, VI)

From her perspective, scientific writing was mainly judged by its “quantitative content [and] the analysis of the outcomes”, but a text written in “too prose-like” style would be considered inappropriate in her field of study.

Sometimes if one tries to make a piece of scientific writing too chatty and too prose-like, it can look a little uncomfortable. And quite often what happens is the obvious break between some flowery -- that's an adjective that is slightly colloquial, you know, some sort of, urm, prose that tries to capture the drama of a situation. (Wendy, VI)

Moreover, she pointed out that using “flowery” language was not an issue of only novice scholars. According to her, there was academic publishing culture, particularly in the UK and the US, that encouraged writers to “sell the dramatic claims” in their paper. Yet, she observed many cases where scholars, regardless of their level of expertise in the subject areas, struggled to incorporate such style into scientific writing “in the right way”. Thus, she stated that students in her programme were generally advised to “stick with a boring scientific style” in their writing.

In our area, people who end up a lot of -- and this includes qualified senior experienced professional scientists, do fall into the trap of, you know, over-dramatizing what they are writing. And that is partly encouraged by, eh, sort of culture which allows for people to sell their dramatic claims [...] They either try to genuinely overclaim for their results or just don't express in the right way because some sort of a language issue. So, at core, certainly in terms of undergraduate, postgraduate teaching, and mentoring and feedback is very clear - stick with the boring scientific style. (Wendy, VI)

In the interview, she did not explicitly specify who would judge whether such style of writing was used in the ‘right’ way. Nevertheless, her frequent emphasis on the negative attitude of her disciplinary community towards the unconventional way of communicating scientific ideas indicated that the norms of her disciplinary community of practice might have a significant impact on her conceptualisation of ‘appropriateness’ in English use.

Nancy also stated that communicating ideas in an “objective” manner was a particular expectation of her discipline rather than a general aspect of ‘appropriate’ English.

There is something called 'academic English,' I would say. Which is -- I wouldn't call it appropriate English. It's just style of English that is expected at academic level. So, it's English used to describe something, or explain something, or to be critical of something, but in a vigorous way, urm, to make it clear for the reader in a very objective way. So, we're talking about Computer Science, so the idea is that English becomes an objective tool to describe something - communicate, sorry, not describe - to communicate something to the reader. And there are some expectations. (Nancy, IDI)

In particular, she recognised that there were various genres of writing within her discipline, such as a journal article, lab report and conference paper, and each one has

its own functions and purposes that would be considered appropriate. However, in her concept of ‘appropriate’ English use in writing, the clarity of the message was more highly valued than the stylistics of writing.

We don't expect it to be masterful - we don't expect Shakespeare. [...] It's about developing. So, developing towards that level which is, as I said, in a style that is clear, well-structured, unambiguous, where it -- there is no confusion on the reader. So, the reader understands clearly there's a progression of arguments, there is an introduction, there's a description for methods or resources. (Nancy, IDI)

Overall, both participants’ concern about using parative and impersonal voice in disciplinary writing had a strong association with the established norms and attitude of their disciplinary communities of practice.

4.4.2.6 The first-person writing

Writing in the first person was often discussed as an important component of disciplinary writing in Frank’s and Olivia’s concepts of ‘appropriate’ English use. For example, Frank stated that first-person writing was one of the qualitative writing techniques which students were expected to use. However, he also stressed that simply using first person narrative in writing would not be enough since the focus of the expectation was whether students could demonstrate their self-reflexivity with “conceptual depth” through first-person writing.

So, unconventional style in my discipline would be one that is like, 'One says this' or 'The research had things like this'. So third person narrative. It will be heavily relying on quantitative statistics, so that would be unconventional, urm. [...] so if you think about the number of dissertations we're gonna be marking, urm, 75, a large, large proportion of them will be first person. It's the skill that we kind of develop in the students. But, not all of us do. This is -- that's interesting as well. They get quite confused, and I was like, listen to the lecturer that you're writing for, obviously. (Frank, VI)

This was also addressed by Olivia who stated that using first person pronoun had a particular function in disciplinary writing in her subject area. Nevertheless, she reported that defining disciplinary conventions was not easy in her discipline because there were certain features that could be regarded as either conventional or unconventional

depending on the approaches people took in their research. As a consequence, students were often confused as they were encouraged to use personal pronouns in one class, such as Olivia's, and advised not to write in the first person in other classes.

My side of the fence is the qualitative, you can write with 'I', you can – might write more reflexively, and more, urm, a little bit more journalistically. So, students sometimes struggle when they skip from different modules where typically on 80 - 90% of psychology, 'No, you can't use 'I'', and then they come to my class and I say, 'You know, you can use 'I''. And then, I have to explain why. In my -- 10 minutes I have to put the explaining why 'I' is acceptable. (Olivia, VI)

Moreover, Olivia claimed that there were some lecturers who preferred using third-person writing even within the qualitative side of the discipline. According to her, this might be related to the fact that the field of psychology had been “dominated by quantitative methods” for a long time. From her perspective, therefore, using scientific conventions as the norm was deeply rooted in her disciplinary community.

In the meantime, Frank reported that the expected writing style in his discipline varied depending on the specific subject area, as well as individual lecturers' preferences. Commenting on Vignette 1, he suggested that an unconventional writing style did not necessarily mean 'incorrect' writing, but the appropriateness of students' written English needed to be judged based on whether the text met the “expectations around style” which should be informed before the assignment took place.

It seems to be about convention for Remy. It's not necessarily about ... like poorly written issues, see. It's not the anticipated style for that area. [...] I don't know I would agree that you should have a correct writing style, but I do know that we, urm, often critical about students', like, poor punctuation, grammar, different stylistic things. And I think if that is the case and we do have these expectations around style, we can extend that to thinking about different discipline style as well. And lab report versus more reflective journal, for example. The reflective journal in that, is the reflective component is the critical part of it. So, if you don't capture that style, then you're not gonna in order to -- you're not gonna, urm, address the assignment expectations. (Frank, VI)

Overall, the expectations of the disciplinary community had a strong impact on both participants' concepts of 'appropriate' English use. However, the findings also indicated that there were disciplines which recognised the first-person writing as a legitimate

disciplinary convention despite the long tradition of using the third-person writing within the disciplinary community of practice.

4.4.2.7 A “good grasp of English”

Christina and Frank considered that the level of English language knowledge played an important role in meeting the expectations of their disciplinary communities in writing. For example, in the discussion of Vignette 1, Christina suggested that Elia (the student in Vignette 1) should seek help to improve her English to get a better grade although her coursework was described as “written with well-supported arguments with only few typos” in the vignette.

The second advice is [...] to advise the student to - before submission - to talk to a peer that has possibly a better level of English and ask that person to peer review the work before submission. So, that process will have the students improving, urm, with their English. And the third thing is, which is the drastic approach, to hire a professional proof-reader before submission. That though will not help to improve -- it will help to improve the English of the coursework, but not English of the person. (Christina, VI)

Her suggestions of getting help from a friend who had better command of English or hiring a professional proof-reader to improve Elia’s English language knowledge indicated a clear link between English being one’s first language or having “a better level of English” and ‘appropriateness’ of written work in her concept of ‘appropriate’ English use. Yet, she did not hold the view that students’ speech and writing must sound like L1 English speakers.

I remember having discussion with a friend of mine, a colleague, who is English. And he said, ‘There is nothing wrong with your English. So, all sentences are built correctly, grammatically make sense, but it is easy, I can easily see that it wasn’t written by English person, urm, that is a native speaker’. So, [...] you can see influence of your own background to this, but it is appropriate because it’s not incorrect. But then what we wouldn’t be accept is the incorrect use of, of language. (Christina, IDI)

On the other hand, Frank stressed that language played a significant role in his discipline in terms of framing arguments and ideas in an analytical way. Referring to L2 English students in his programme, however, he reported that they tended to “struggle” more

than their L1 English peers in constructing and presenting arguments in a way to meet the disciplinary expectations.

So, English as -- is definitely not the first language, and that just shows in the written work. The idea is, 'Oh, fantastic', but you can tell that there's a struggle over, urm, different terms and different ideas and how to, kind of, phrase things and that sort of thing. [...] It's just don't flow in the same way as you might sometimes expect a piece of work to play. (Frank, IDI)

From his perspective, therefore, having a “really good grasp of English” could help the students stand out from others, particularly in writing.

[Language] is the thread that kind of allows the students to weave different levels of engagement from just a pure descriptive level to the more kind of analytic. And I do think that there is something about having a grasp of, urm, having a really good grasp of kind of the English -- about English language. [...] That can be the thing that distinguish between the students, you know. Students can have appropriate grammar, urm, syntax, all that sort of stuff is really important. (Frank, IDI)

Like Christina, his concept of ‘appropriate’ English did not necessarily equate with L1 English. For instance, he stressed that “Englishness of the language” was not a significant factor to determine the ‘appropriateness’ in disciplinary writing. This was because, he added, it was crucial to be able to contextualise “the means of expressing” in his particular subject area.

So, if those within different countries, those societal issues will be different, and therefore the means of expressing that radically - well not radically - it's that this idea of radically contextual -- it would be completely contextualised. So, that Englishness of the language is not necessarily important. [...] It's about the kind of understanding the wider society, and wider social issues and how that intersects with sports. So, having, urm, English as the centre of that - I don't think it's important. (Frank, IDI)

Overall, the participants’ ideas of the ‘incorrect’ use of language (Christina) and of “appropriate grammar and syntax” (Frank) were mainly associated with L1 English norms. However, in general, it appeared that both participants identified English at metalevel; that is, they were not particularly considering the cultural codes embedded in language when they were referring to ‘English’ during the interviews.

4.4.2.8 Critical thinking skills

The importance of displaying critical thinking skills was highlighted by Christina and Robyn in their concepts of ‘appropriate’ disciplinary writing. In particular, Christina stated that writing which lacked critical thinking elements often showed an issue of coherence and intelligibility.

The problem we get constantly is, urm, okay, you may call it, a student felt an overwhelming, uh, panic about writing. [...] They are bombarded with information from everywhere, particularly on the internet, and they feel like -- but they don't make any sense of, urm -- when you read and you can see that the students were struggling making sense of what is written down. (Christina, IDI)

Moreover, she had different expectations on the level of criticality for different types of degree. For instance, she stated that master's students were expected to show how their opinion was developed through critical thinking process whereas simply acknowledge that “that is not the only view” might be acceptable for undergraduate coursework.

I would say it [the undergraduate level of critical thinking] has questioning, perhaps awareness that there is -- that is not the only view. But you wouldn't go into the details of exploring what the other views and forming an opinion. Forming an opinion happens at master level. (Christina, IDI)

In the meantime, Robyn stated that she personally considered that the student who lacked critical thinking skills would struggle more than the other one with the unconventional writing style in terms of academic achievement as commenting on the students in Vignette 1 and Vignette 2. This was because, from her perspective, critical thinking skills were the important element of not only disciplinary writing in her field of study, but also in academic writing in general. Nevertheless, she posited a view that the latter might struggle more than the former if “the lecturer or examiner values writing” or “focuses on language”.

But some lecturers would judge language quite severely. [...] to be honest, I think maybe with lecturers that, uh, maybe don't have the kind of open mind with the international students, urm, Elia might have more difficult situation. [...] Even compare with Joe, urm, for an examiner that really focuses on language. For me personally? Joe would have the hardest. (Robyn, VI)

4.4.2.9 Concise use of language

Being “concise” with language use was strongly associated with George’s and Olivia’s concepts of ‘appropriate’ English use in academic writing. In particular, George stressed that English was a “very concise”, yet “very rich” language, and therefore even a trivial mistake, such as just one ‘incorrect’ word in the text, could cause significant misunderstanding.

It's very rich language. Urm, and I think in academic terms, that's quite important because just one - you know, one word, half a word wrong, it changes - it can change the whole meaning of something ... and instigate all sorts of questions. So, I think, particularly in academia, the precision of language is quite important in - in every language, but more so in English which is such a concise language. (George, IDI)

While his idea of conciseness was focused on being precise and explicit, Olivia’s attention was mainly on sentence structure and wordiness in writing. In particular, recalling her experience with L2 English students and colleagues’ written work, she posited a view that L2 English speakers tended to use long sentences in their writing.

For example, for a Spanish student, [...] so, you put the adjectives in a different, like, 'a black cat' and 'a cat black'. So, small things like that or is it long sentences -- it's quite a typical one. I know some writing of an Italian guy. He writes really horrifically long sentences, and [her colleague] who is Argentinian, and he writes horrifically long sentences. So, I guess it could be that. (Olivia, VI)

From her perspective, such long sentences created difficulties for readers to understand the text as the writer intended.

4.4.2.10 Discipline-specific writing styles

In this study, discipline-specific writing styles were highlighted by Peter, George, and Robyn respectively, in relation to their concepts of ‘appropriate’ written language use: a formulaic way of writing, non-journalistic style, and non-literacy style of writing.

A “formulaic” way of writing

Peter stated the field of engineering generally used a “formulaic way of writing”, and disciplinary conventions played a crucial role in constructing the text. Some of the

conventions he highlighted were a specific format and location of figures and tables in the text, using International System of Units (SI Units) - the widely used system of measurement, and a certain set of structure to write a lab report.

The separation of things like results and discussion is conventional. The separation of methodology and results -- so having those as three separate things. And so, something that quite often -- when I was marking the tutees, my tutees' lab reports, they do struggle with that. So, sometimes you'll be reading the results and there will be some methods in that or vice versa. So, I suppose that would be unconventional. Just sort of guessing structure wrong. (Peter, VI)

A non-journalistic style of writing

In the discussion of Vignette 1, for example, George reported that the most common unconventionality he encountered in students' assignments was writing that "looks more like a piece of journalism". From his perspective, the distinction between an academic essay and a newspaper article might be "not always crystal clear", but there were a particular "tone of writing" and a type of sources that students need to use in their writing.

We want them to have an opinion and arguing, but sometimes there's a fine line between an academic essay and something you could find in newspaper. And because of the topics that we cover, that distinction isn't always crystal clear. [...] And what would be unconventional would be not really having the academic sources and the theoretical background, but just talking more and more about what happened in the way that journalist would. And they give us type of assumptions that journalist would. (George, VI)

Moreover, he pointed out that English being first language did not have a particular advantage in writing in his field of study. Referring to his American students in the programme, George reported that they tended to use a journalistic style of writing more often than other non-UK students, which he assumed, because of the particular academic writing style in the US.

A non-literacy style of writing

Robyn also shared this view by pointing out that unconventional writing style in her programme was not necessarily related to L2 English students or their level of English knowledge. Instead, she put a strong emphasis on the importance of evidence-based writing style in education research writing. This might be associated with her frequent

encounter with students with a literature background in her programme who often made arguments based on the conceptual analysis and theoretical assumptions without providing empirical evidence.

Some students who come from a literature background struggle in education and applied linguistics because our writing style isn't like a literature style. It's not about analysing being ... according to your own ideas or according to some other philosophical framework. It's very much evidence-based. (Robyn, VI)

Therefore, she suggested that simply taking “English classes” might not always be of benefit to those students who would like to improve their discipline-specific writing style. From her perspective, what students need is to identify the differences in styles of written language between their particular disciplinary community and their own, as she explained in her comment on Vignette 1:

I think any advice to sign up for English classes wouldn't actually be very helpful. May be at this stage, it might be good for Elia to look at models of really what the lecturer thinks is a good writing, or a very polished writing. [...] I think by providing those models she might get a better idea of how the language is used. (Robyn, VI)

With regard to this issue, she added that providing a sample of what lecturer is considered to be “good writing” would help the students to discover such differences by themselves.

Overall, the above-mentioned writing styles may not be considered discipline-specific conventions in the field of EAP. However, each style was crucial features in the evaluation of ‘appropriate’ written English use in disciplinary writing for these three participants.

4.5 Cross-case findings for RQ 1

This section presents a comparison and analysis of the findings regarding the participants’ conceptualisation of ‘the international’ and ‘appropriate’ English use across all eight cases. First of all, the following three key themes were identified across the participants’ concept of ‘the international’:

- Go beyond the national border (henceforth INT1)
- Diversity (henceforth INT2)
- Use of English language (henceforth INT3)

The INT1 and INT2 were the dominant themes in most participants' conceptualisation of 'the international', but each theme encompassed a number of different elements. The following subsection presents those similarities and differences amongst the participants' understandings of 'the international'.

4.5.1 Different reasons for the same ideas

Figure 5 shows that a total of seven participants associated the INT 1 with their concept of 'the international', yet what goes beyond the border varied from a range of the academic network to reputation of individual academics. In addition to this, their perspectives on how far beyond the national border would be considered international also divided into either outside the UK or outside the EU.

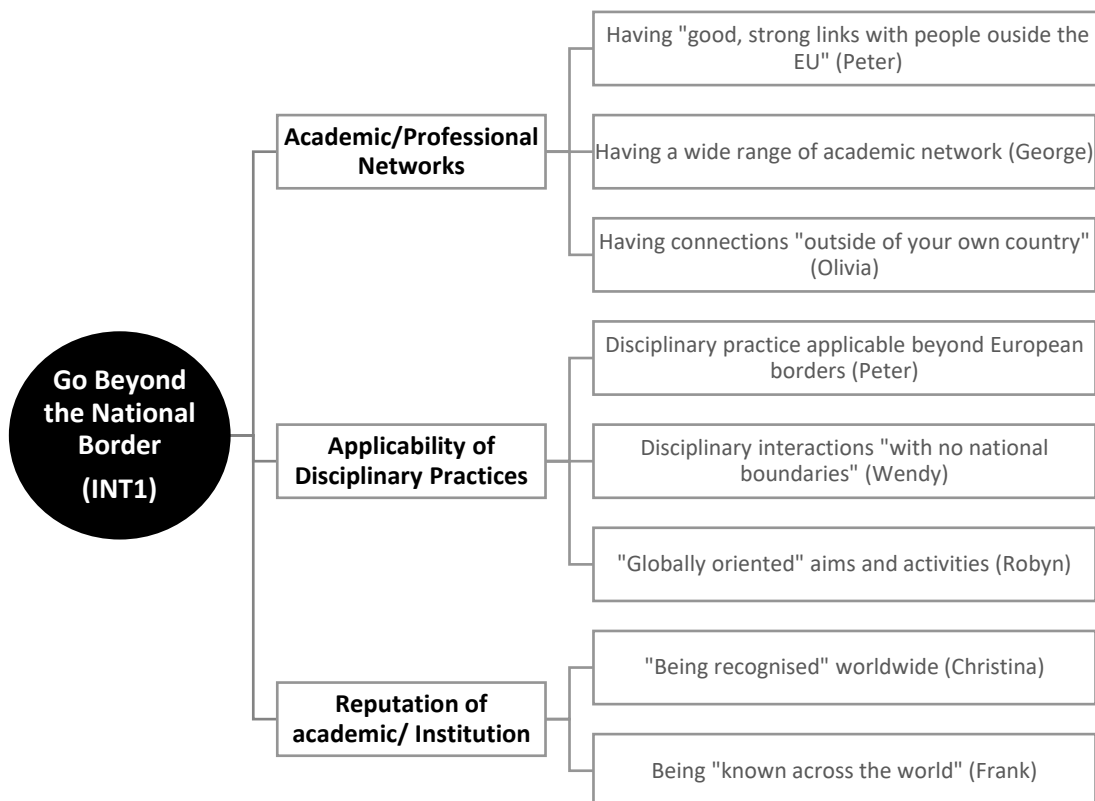


Figure 5. The participants' concept of 'the international' - Theme 1: Go beyond the national border

Moreover, it was observed that the reputation factor was often highlighted multiple times in most participants' programme brochures and/or websites to address its high international profile as shown in Table 10.

Table 10. The 'International' components highlighted in each participant's programme brochure and/or website

	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Case 5	Case 6	Case 7	Case 8
Academic staff with "internationally recognised expertise"	o	o		o	o	o		
"International reputation" of the university or department	o	o	o				o	
Producing "internationally excellent research"	o	o	o	o	o		o	o
Students and academic staff from many different countries	o	o		o	o	o	o	o
Having links with "international" employers and partners	o	o	o		o		o	o

Nevertheless, the findings suggest that such institutional representations of 'the international' did not have a significant impact on the participants' conceptualisation of 'the international' compared to other two components (i.e. a range of academic network and applicability of disciplinary practice).

Furthermore, Figure 6 shows that the INT2 was also comprised of varied components, and even some contradicting ideas. As for instance, the diversity of 'nationalities', which was mainly associated with geographical differences, was perceived as a positive factor in relation to the internationality of the institution or programme by the participants.

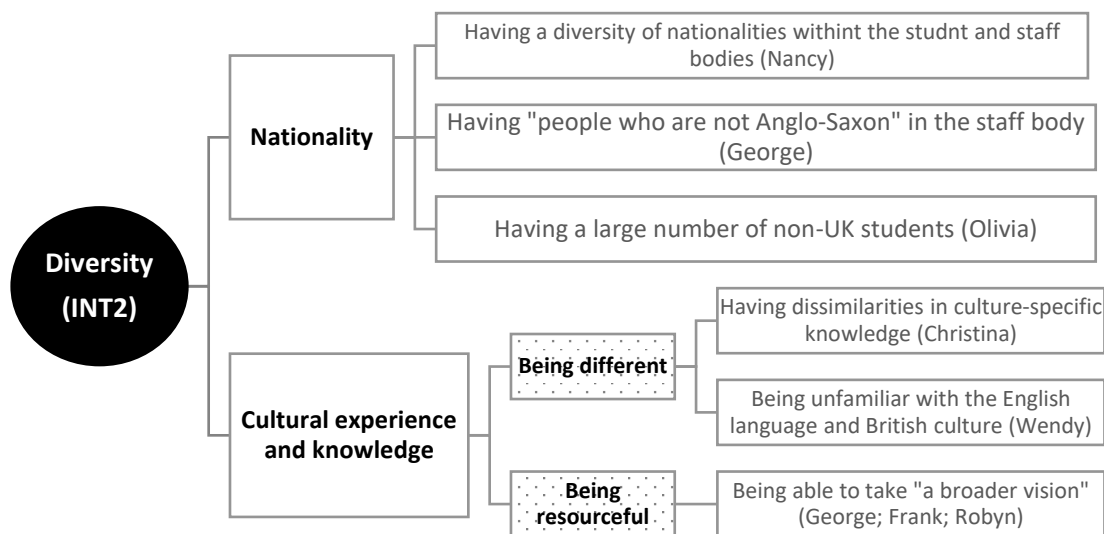


Figure 6. The participants' concept of 'the international' - Theme 2: Diversity

On the other hand, the diversity of 'cultural knowledge and experience' was primarily linked to students and staff's cultural backgrounds, and there were two opposite perspectives particularly on the diversity of students' cultural knowledge and experience. For example, the participants from social science programmes tended to perceive non-UK students' knowledge and experiences as useful resources to develop deeper insights into the issues in their subject areas whereas Christina and Wendy, who were from engineering and science programmes respectively, considered those to be an impediment to non-UK students' academic performance. Although drawn from the small samples, this contrasting attitude between the participants from social sciences and others could be related to the fact that the subject areas of the former had more opportunities to engage with international issues and communities than the latter due to the nature of their subject area.

4.5.2 The weak link between the concept of 'the international' and English

Most participants in this study were aware of their institution's pursuit of internationalisation strategies, but English was not particularly linked to their idea of being international regarding internationality of the institution or programme. Although some participants considered English to be an international language of academic communication, it was shown in limited contexts such as academic publishing, international conferences and international universities in non-Anglophone countries.

In this study, the INT3 was noted by two participants as shown in Figure 7. However, they put more emphasis on the other components, such as the diversity of nationalities (Nancy) and diverse cultural knowledge and experience (Robyn) in the discussion of their concept of ‘the international’ as presented in the earlier sections (see 4.3.4 and 4.3.5).

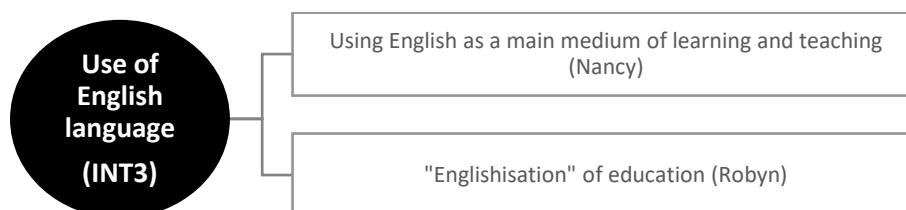


Figure 7. The participants’ concept of ‘the international’ - Theme 3: Use of English language

In summary, there was consensus amongst the participants about the components that made their institutions or programmes international on the surface, but a closer look on the key themes revealed that their conceptualisation of the international varied according to the individual perspective, discipline and the context of the term *international* was used. The relationship between the participants’ concept of the international and their judgement on the appropriateness of English use is fully discussed in the next subsections.

4.5.3 Different concepts of ‘appropriate’ English use in speaking and writing

The identified components that the participants in this study considered crucial in terms of their disciplinary language use can be divided into three large themes as follows:

- Disciplinary conventions
- Academic English conventions
- Intelligibility of speech/ writing

First of all, the findings show that there was a drastic difference in the components the participants cared in relation to their concepts of ‘appropriate’ English use between the context of speaking and writing. Figure 8 shows that the intelligibility was the most frequently mentioned component by the participants as shown in speaking.

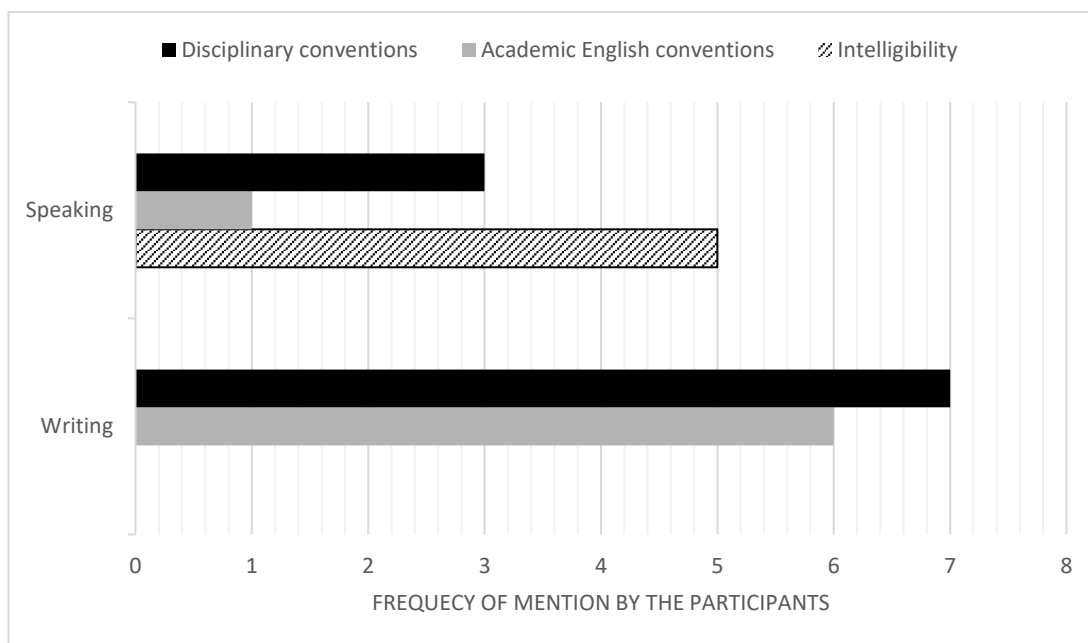


Figure 8. The components concerned in the participants' concepts of 'appropriate' English use

The participants' understanding of the intelligibility in this context was mostly focused on whether the speech could deliver the disciplinary knowledge and information to the intended audience - who were often members of academic community yet not necessarily those from the same disciplinary community as the speaker - without confusing them. Moreover, even the participants who stressed the importance of using discipline-specific terminology (Christina) and academic phrases (Olivia) also expressed that intelligible speech would be sufficient to be recognised as 'appropriate' in certain contexts, such as in conferences and working sites. This less concern of academic English and disciplinary conventions in speaking was often explained in relation to the fact that people generally tended to be more tolerant of unconventionality in speech than in writing by the participants in this study.

On the other hand, in writing, the majority of the participants stressed the importance of using disciplinary conventions and academic English conventions. The intelligibility was addressed mainly as the outcome of using those conventions. In other words, the participants considered that using either disciplinary or academic English conventions would improve the intelligibility of speech and text, but it was not regarded as the key aspect of 'appropriate' English use in academic written discourse.

4.5.4 Different concepts of ‘appropriate’ English use between the disciplines

Five components were categorised under the theme of disciplinary conventions as shown in Table 11. There was significant consistency amongst the participants from the field of engineering and science in terms of the perceived key features of their disciplinary conventions.

Table 11. The Perceived Key Features of Disciplinary Conventions

	ENGINEERING		SCIENCE		SOCIAL SCIENCE			
	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Case 5	Case 6	Case 7	Case 8
Writing in the third person	o	o	o	o				
Using precise expressions and correct terminology	o	o				o		
Using passive and impersonal voice			o	o				
Writing in the first person						o		o
Using discipline-specific writing styles		o			o		o	

For instance, the participants from engineering and science subject areas perceived the third-person writing as a crucial feature of their disciplinary writing. Also, there was a consensus view that using first-person pronouns, especially *I*, in writing might not affect one’s professional work, but would be perceived inappropriate by the majority of their disciplinary community. Nevertheless, those participants also showed different understanding and attitude towards certain key features as shown in Figure 9.

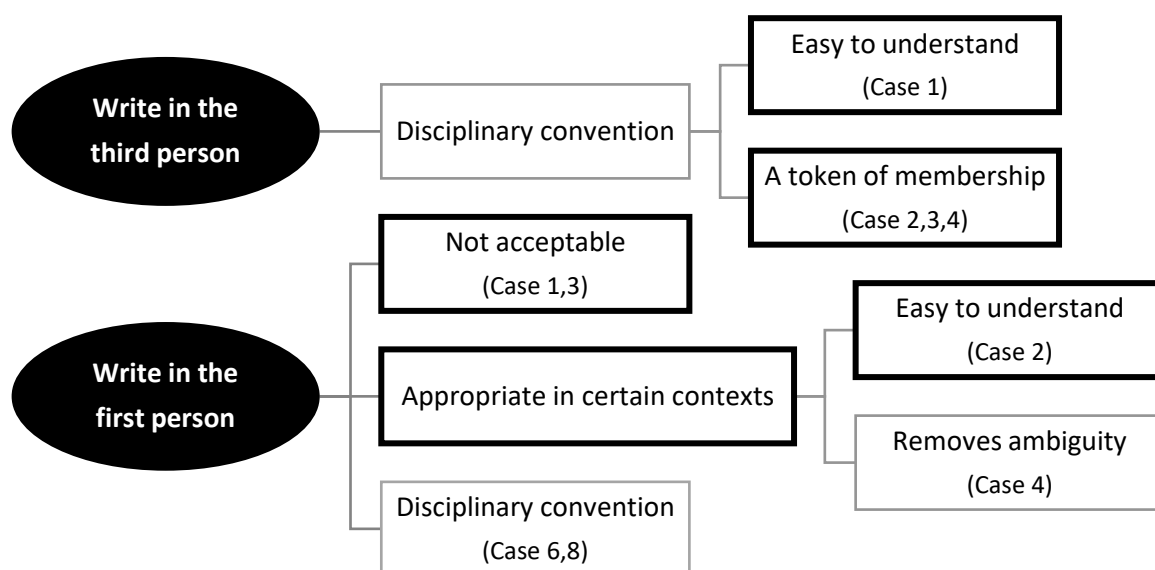


Figure 9. Differences in the participants' understanding of disciplinary conventions

On the other hand, there was no explicit commonality in the perceived key feature of disciplinary conventions amongst the participants from social science programmes. Yet, they all pointed out the significance of the context-sensitive nature of language use in their conceptualisation of 'appropriate' English. For instance, Frank stated that there were different ways to use English to "convey a point across the different disciplines".

So, within different disciplines in academia, yes, there are appropriate uses of, urm, English as a language, but that is very different. And, you see that when you speak to people, how, urm, the different criteria and, you know, different expectations around -- how you present material, how you present arguments, whether that based on figures and facts, whether that based on ... a kind of more prose approach. (Frank, ID1)

Robyn also stated that every genre of speech and writing had conventions that were commonly used in its specific context, and therefore the appropriateness of language use would be determined by "whether you adhere to those conventions". In the same manner, she proposed that there were conventions appropriate for each disciplinary communication and even a single discipline could have a variety of conventions.

Moreover, the importance of identified features in each participant's concept of 'appropriate' English use was highly associated with the norms and attitudes of their disciplinary communities of practice. Only Frank and Olivia clarified the particular

functions of the perceived key features in disciplinary writing whereas other participants mostly emphasised the expectations to conform to the established discourse practice of their disciplinary communities.

4.5.5 The strong link between using the conventions of academic English writing and the expectations of disciplinary communities of practice

Another five components were categorised according to their association with the notion of academic English conventions as shown in Table 12. No explicit pattern was identified at a disciplinary level, but there were individual differences in the degree of caring for academic English conventions in relation to their concept of ‘appropriate’ English use.

Table 12. The Perceived Key Features of Academic English Conventions

	ENGINEERING		SCIENCE		SOCIAL SCIENCE			
	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Case 5	Case 6	Case 7	Case 8
Conforming to academic writing conventions	o						o	o
Using ‘correct’ grammar and spelling	o	o			o			
Having a ‘good grasp of English’	o					o		
Displaying critical thinking skills	o						o	
Using concise language					o			o

For instance, the findings show that academic English conventions played the significant role in Christina’s conceptualisation of ‘appropriate’ English while they were not particularly considered important by the participants from science programmes.

Furthermore, although few participants addressed the relation of using the conventions of academic English and the intelligibility of writing, meeting the expectations of disciplinary communities was the most frequently given reason as shown in the Figure 10.

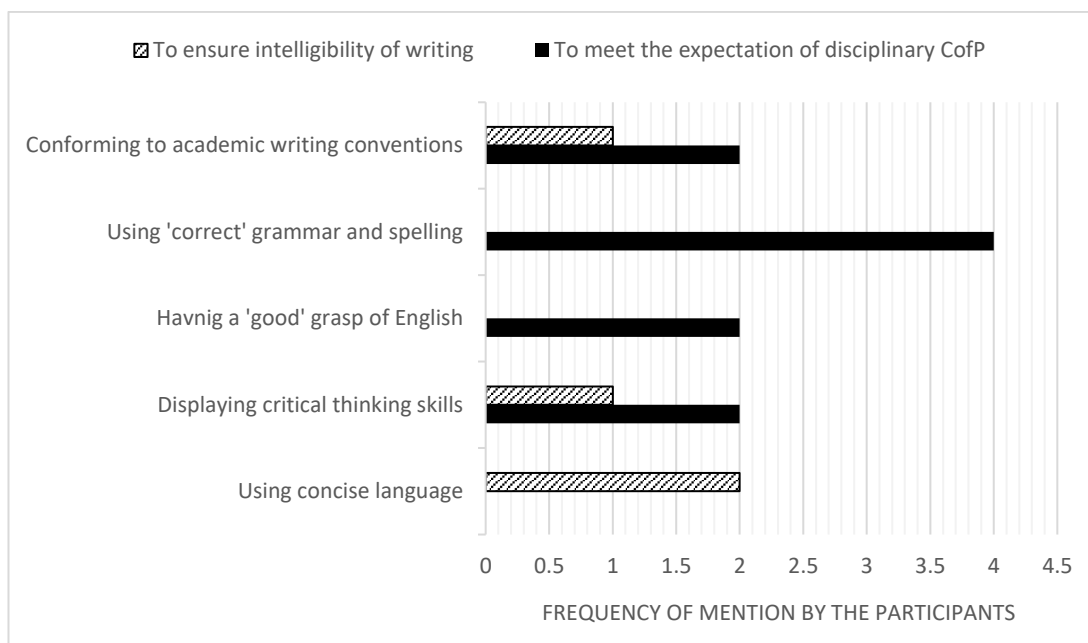


Figure 10. The perceived necessity of using the conventions of academic English writing

Another interesting finding worth noting was that the participants from social sciences were more aware of Anglophone academic community's influence on 'appropriate' English use within their discipline. For example, George and Robyn recognised that their disciplinary conventions shared many features with the conventions of traditional Academic English in Anglophone countries because their subject areas were established and have been developed dominantly by Anglophone communities. Frank also commented on the lack of involvement of non-Anglophone members in internationalising his subject area while Olivia pointed out the general attitude towards 'incorrect' use of grammar being negative in her disciplinary community. These replies can be compared to those from the participants of engineering and science programmes who mostly regarded their current norms of language usage as a collective construction of disciplinary communities rather than that of L1 English communities.

4.6 Findings for RQ 2a: influencing factors on teaching practices

This section presents the themes which emerged mainly from the documents and interviews regarding the factors that might influence each participant in terms of incorporating their concept of 'the international' and 'appropriate' English use into their pedagogical practices. The themes were selected based on the frequency as well as the emphasis shown in the documents and the participants responses in the IDIs.

4.6.1 English language proficiency of L2 English students

Most programme brochures and handbook depicted that language proficiency as one of the main issues which international students encounters during their study.

In the programme brochure of Christina, Peter, and George, for example, the ASU was introduced on an 'International Students' page and described as a place where students could get help improving "English language skills." Moreover, considering this 'International Students' page was targeting those who speaks other than English as their first language, English language proficiency was clearly seen as the main issue of L2 English students in their academic achievement. Moreover, although the support provided by the ASU included the courses on "writing and speaking with a focus on either academic, informal or business English", the aspects of academic skills were conflated into the term 'English language skills'. The similar perspective was shown in Robyn's programme handbook, which provided some information about individual support on academic writing which all students could get from their supervisor. According to the description, students were able to get this support only in their first term of the programme in the following two ways: 1) get extensive feedback on short free essay and 2) get feedback only regarding the use of academic English and conventions on a draft for one core unit assignment. There was no further information regarding academic skills support although, according to Robyn, L2 English students were often advised to take academic writing courses offered by the ASU. Nonetheless, she reported that there was no support available for L1 English students in terms of academic writing, at least to her knowledge, in the master's programme.

One of my Master supervisee is English, and they really wanted to sign up for the course for academic writing because they thought, 'Even I'm English, I still struggle with my academic writing. It's very different format'. And they went to sign up for the Language Centre and they told them that they couldn't because they were not an international student and English was their first language. And so, they were quite upset by that -- thinking that, you know, they wanted to sign up for the service, but they couldn't. And so, we searched around and looking for other options just for local students, and we couldn't find any. (Robyn, IDI)

Indeed, the ASU website explicitly presented that their academic courses were intended for L2 English speakers who “require English language support for their academic studies.”

On the other hand, the programme handbook of George and Frank provided the detailed information on various support systems including both “academic study skills” and language skills support. In these documents, English language courses were introduced as where “non-native speakers” could “enhance English language proficiency” while academic study skills were available for students regardless of their first language. The similar perspective was shown in the webinar video¹ of Nancy’s programme where the English language course was described as “English language training for non-native English speakers” while the Director of Studies emphasised that academic skills courses were “not just for non-native English speakers, but [...] for everybody.” Here, the issue of language proficiency was explicitly distinguished from that of academic skills, but there was an implicit view that the improvement of language proficiency of L2 English students would improve their academic performance.

Overall, this emphasis on the relationship between language proficiency and L2 English students’ academic performance can be seen as the representation of the general attitude of each participant’s department and/or faculty. Nevertheless, it was not one of the key influence factors on participants’ teaching practices, which are presented in the following subsections.

4.6.2 Discourse conventions of the discipline

Teaching practices of most participants with regard to language use were largely influenced by the norms and attitudes of their disciplinary practice. As for an instance, Peter often emphasised communication skills as an important aspect of disciplinary discourse and tried to help students foster the skill in his teaching. Referring to his L2 English students, for example, he reported that it was slightly difficult to “get the dialogue going” in the class compared to those from his previous programme who were all L1 English speakers with careers in healthcare. Yet, he suggested that the issue might be

¹ There was no brochure or handbook available at the time of the interview. Instead, there was a webinar video available on the programme website which introduced all MSc programmes to new students by the Director of Studies in postgraduate programmes.

more associated with a characteristic of engineers, which he described as “introvert” and “not good at communication”, than with students’ first language being not English. In either case, he considered that the issue laid in students being intimidated by verbal communication. Thus, he often encouraged their participation in discussion by asking them to write answers or ideas on the board.

I suppose it was a written communication with calculations ... things like that. So, it wasn't too intimidating for them. And I think after that they began to chat to me a bit more (Peter, IDI).

Christina and Nancy also stressed the importance of helping students to learn discipline-specific discourse conventions, but their approaches in teaching was also strongly influenced by their experience with international students, as presented in the next section.

4.6.3 The participants’ experience with international students

For Christina and Nancy, their experience with international students had a significant impact on their approach to teaching disciplinary language practice. In particular, Nancy suggested that English language tests that L2 English students were taking as a university entry requirement were “not enough” to prepare them to perform academic writing at the expected level for the programme. Thus, she often sought support or collaborated with the ASU to run a workshop on specific written assignments such as dissertations.

For a similar reason, Christina collaborated with the ASU and Professional Skills Unit (PSU) to provide a weekly session tailored to disciplinary needs and contexts so that students could practice language skills that were more relevant and useful to their subject study and types of assignments. However, in addition to her experience with international students, Christina also frequently referred back to her learning experience as an L2 English speaker when she discussed the approaches she took in teaching and supporting her students. As for instance, based on her own experience of learning the terminology, she used pictures and drawings in lectures and encouraged students to guess the terminology relating to each image. According to her, explaining the word to others helped her not only remember the terminology and its context of use, but also improve her communication skills.

The approaches that George and Robyn took in their teaching were also based on their extensive experience with international students, but it was mostly due to the nature of their subject area which frequently dealt with various international contexts and issues. The following subsection presents this with more details.

4.6.4 The international nature of the subject area

George and Robyn often highlighted the international nature of their subject area. From George's perspective, in particular, taking the intercultural approach was embedded in learning and teaching his subject area, which constantly dealt with international and intercultural issues. For this reason, diverse cultural and experiential knowledge of students was seen as useful learning resources and students were encouraged to engage in open discussions and debates during the lecture.

Like George, she also appreciated the diverse learning and teaching experience of L2 English students because it "[made] discussions much more interesting" and encouraged the students to consider different aspects and perspectives on the same issues. Nevertheless, as her subject area was English language education, she was not only familiar with teaching multicultural and multilingual classes, but also had a high level of awareness of intercultural issues in language teaching. For example, she stated that avoiding cultural references or "local idioms" that required "local knowledge to understand" and providing explicit instructions were the usual routine of her teaching practice. In the meantime, she often pointed out the issue of Anglophone-centred attitude in English use in the IHE context and evaluating of L2 English students' written work as presented in the previous sections (see 4.3.6; 4.4.2.3).

Furthermore, Wendy and Frank also considered the intercultural aspect of their teaching environment although the subjects they were teaching were not particularly dealing with international issues. The following subsection presents this with more details.

4.6.5 Intercultural awareness of academics

Although there were a small number of non-UK students in the class, both Wendy and Frank stated that they tried to avoid using cultural references specific to British culture

during the lecture. In particular, Frank suggested that some concepts and terminology commonly used in Britain, such as ‘size zero culture’ or an impact of social media on sports issues, were often communicated based on “a shared understanding” in his undergraduate classes where nearly all students were British.

We have round things like bodies and health, from like al -- particularly like UK perspective, maybe even from just a western perspective. So, what I found was that when I'm teaching the undergrads, I guess there is a sense of a shared understanding around, like, the role of social media or the expectation of size zero. (Frank, IDI)

Therefore, he tried to be more aware of those cultural features and “contextualise much more” in a multicultural classroom setting while he encouraged his undergraduate students to take perspectives beyond the UK on the issues being discussed in the lecture. Wendy also regarded using any cultural references as a “bad” practice because certain cultural references could be confusing for students who had not been exposed to British culture as much as their British peers.

Olivia also emphasised on taking intercultural approaches in supporting students, but her focus was on how to help them “accustomed to” the British academic system as presented in the next section.

4.6.6 British academic system

Olivia pointed out the lack of intercultural approach in the support systems in her current university. According to her, the available support was less about the consideration of cultural and conceptual differences in academic study skills of non-UK, particularly non-EU students compared to her previous university. By stating the fact that the majority of non-UK students were from European countries, she speculated that the university assumed that EU students were “more accustomed to the way of lecturing” and using academic language in a British university. Nevertheless, referring to an article she had recently read, she argued that understanding the cultural learning behaviour of students, particularly those from non-EU countries, would be helpful to better understand the issues they encountered in UK universities.

I read this in an article somewhere about international student. For example, Chinese students -- that they are afraid to criticise, urm, their teachers or scholars, or experts in the field because [...] they are the knowledgeable people. And we're just mere humble people who just reproduce what you say, because you're right. And obviously that's not the way works in the UK. [...] It's part of it, it's about challenging authority figures, authority arguments. (Olivia, IDI)

However, her teaching practice was also significantly made on the basis of the conformity to British academic standards. For instance, a large extent of her support for students involved providing additional materials or weblinks on academic phrases and proofreading as presented in the previous sections (see 4.4.1.3; 4.4.2.3).

4.7 Findings for RQ 2b: influencing factors on assessment practices

This section presents the findings from the documents (i.e. marking criteria) and SRIs. SRI findings, in particular, focused on the similarities and differences in the participants' concept of 'appropriate' English use between their teaching and assessment context in order to identify the influencing factors on their assessment practices.

For this interview, each participant provided three or more pieces of written feedback that were used as stimuli, as well as the marking criteria used to produce the feedback. It should be noted that most marking criteria provided for this study were generic although they were used for the assessment of various types of written coursework, from essay to report writing. These marking criteria were analysed to identify the language-related components that each participant was advised to consider in their assessment practices. The participants were, then, asked to give their interpretation of the components particularly associated with the communicative and linguistic category in the marking criteria (shown in bold in the tables presented with each case), as well as how they assessed those components.

The themes emerged from SRIs were identified based on the frequency and the emphasis shown in the participants' responses in the interviews.

4.7.1 The expectations of disciplinary CoFP

CASE 3: Wendy

For the interview, Wendy provided four pieces of coursework from two final year units for the interview. The unit A coursework was literature writing, and that of unit B was a report writing. She also provided two different types of marking criteria, but the one for report writing did not have the specified marking components as it only presented the overall marking range with brief achievement descriptors. Yet, a written report marksheet included brief information on what elements should be considered in a marker's feedback. Therefore, each marking component for report writing coursework was inferred from the achievement descriptors, and the guideline shown in the written report marksheet. A brief summary of the marking criteria for both assessments is presented in Table 13 (a more detailed version appears in [Appendix I](#)).

Table 13. Marking Criteria used by Wendy

TYPE OF ASSIGNMENT	LITERATURE WRITING	REPORT WRITING
MARKING COMPONENTS	Depth and breadth of understanding the topic	Appropriateness of introduction pitched at the right level
	Communication of scientific content; use of sources	Clarity of description of methods and techniques
	Quality of critical analysis	Clarity and quality of the results
	Appropriateness of content and analysis for the unit	Presence of critical analysis and justifiable conclusion
	Quality of writing, including: use of template, scientific style, spelling and grammar	Presentation: Quality of figures and captions; number of typographical; grammatical errors
	Quality and appropriateness of the illustration	Quality of referencing

The components under the communicative and linguistic category mainly focused on the ability to communicate scientific information, as well as the number of grammatical errors in writing. Using scientific language and format, and its relation to the attitude of her disciplinary community of practice was consistently emphasised by Wendy in relation to her concept of 'appropriate' English use in both teaching and assessment contexts. The following subsections provide more details.

4.7.1.1 Using “scientific English” for scientific communities

Conforming to the conventional discourse style that was approved by her disciplinary community was, again, strongly emphasised in Wendy’s assessment context as she was commenting on one of the students’ literature writing. She often referred this style as “scientific English”, which she explicitly distinguished from “elegant” use of language.

We needed to be in good scientific English, but only good scientific English. It does not have to be elegant. So, that really means, eh, communicating in the most important part of the measurement, getting that right, drawing out the correct messages.

As an example of ‘scientific English’, she reported that using *they* was regarded as “not good scientific language” in addition to using *I* and *we*, particularly in literature writing.

It’s very, very much not accepted, this ‘they’, you know. [...] ‘Khachaturian and Khachaturian looked at this’. [...] and subsequently you have to refer to that in the right way. ‘This work, this work, and this work showed’, not ‘They showed, they showed, they showed’. That’s not good scientific language.

Moreover, concerning the report writing assessment, she emphasised students’ ability to choose and present scientifically ‘appropriate’ data. Commenting on one of the students’ assignments, for example, Wendy explained that scientific research could produce many different types of data that were all relevant to the project. Thus, according to her, students were expected to identify and present the key data so that “scientifically expert reader[s]” – regardless of whether they have expertise in the exact topic area – could clearly understand their work. This was particularly linked to the *Appropriateness of Introduction Pitched at the Right Level* component, as she stressed that the ability involved how to exploit the introduction section in writing to illustrate the purpose and process of the experiment as clearly as possible to guide those readers.

I as unknown expert, I thought ‘Yeah, I get that,’ you know, I can see why that method would be used and how-, what it’s all about, etc [...] It’s the ‘why’. Yeah, the introduction has to capture the ‘why’. Why am I going to read a 60-page report? Tell me, please, instruct me! [laughter] And then tell me enough about the way which it was done so that I can then understand the diagram, the graph [the student] is gonna show me of the data.

She argued that these scientific stylistics had been “adopted” and “embedded” in most of the published work of people in her discipline, and therefore it was vital for the academic paper to meet those expectations of the community.

4.7.1.2 Using ‘correct’ grammar and spelling to ensure intelligibility and credibility

From Wendy’s perspective, the intelligibility of text determined whether language errors would be considered a major or minor problem. For example, commenting on one of students’ report writing, she stated that that grammatical and typographical errors would not have much impact on the grade in general, but too many grammatical errors and “poor” expressions in the report could potentially “dilute the message” by distracting readers from focusing on content. She also pointed out that frequent language errors often compromised the quality of the reported research. That is, even though students took a critical approach and accurately interpreted the test results, readers would not perceive their work as reliable scientific research if it was “not expressed correctly”.

But particularly in case where there’s very, very poor expression and a lot of errors, it can be very difficult for the messages then to come across and -- I’m not trying to wiggle out of this interpretation, but quite often if there are a lot of those errors, it does affect the overall structuring of a report, the overall way in which the results are able to be pulled out. (Wendy, SRI)

Nevertheless, Wendy stressed that *Presentation* component was judged by whether the report was presented with “a good scientific layout”. For this reason, she stated that if “the core message and the critical analysis are evidenced very strongly”, language errors in the paper were likely to be considered a minor issue. This comment indicated that using language conventions of scientific communities was the predominant factor that influenced Wendy’s conceptualisation of ‘appropriate’ English use in both teaching and assessment context.

CASE 4: Nancy

Nancy provided three pieces of coursework from one of the compulsory units for the interview. The marking criteria and achievement descriptors of the overall marking range were attached in the coursework specification. Table 14 shows a summary of the assessment focus (a more detailed version appears in [Appendix I](#)).

Table 14. Marking Criteria used by Nancy

TYPE OF ASSIGNMENT	ANALYTIC REPORT WRITING
MARKING COMPONENTS	Scope and coverage of work, including: Depth and criticality of analysis and evaluation; Breadth and depth of literature used in the report; Relevance and validity of conclusions; Individuality and originality
	Structure and organisation of work, including: Sequencing and development of facts, ideas, and argument; Degree of integration and synthesis in structure
	Presentation of work, including: Clarity and conciseness of communication; Fluency and consistency of style; Visual quality and legibility; Appropriateness modes of presentation; Referencing style

The components under the communicative and linguistic category involved various linguistic features from the clarity of communication to modes of presentation. Nancy pointed out that assessment practice involved “a lot of academic judgment” which could vary one lecture from another.

We discuss this internally here that there is a lot of academic judgement. So, what is 'very good' for someone could be 'excellent' for me. Or maybe the opposite. What is 'good' for me could be 'excellent' for them. So, it's subjective-, however, [...] if I keep consistent within my expectation - it's all about expectations. (Nancy, SRI)

Therefore, she stated that she tried to be consistent with her assessment practice although the marks allocated to the components would vary depending on the aim of the assignment. In regard to her concept of ‘appropriate’ English use, her focus was consistently on the expectations of her disciplinary CoP in both teaching and assessment contexts. The following subsections provide more details.

4.7.1.3 Using an appropriate writing style for a given context to meet the expectations of disciplinary CoP

Regarding the *Modes of Presentation* in marking criteria, Nancy stated that appropriateness was determined by the type of the assignment, such as conference paper

and essay, and the aim of the assessment in the programme. For example, the coursework provided for the interview was written for a particular conference. According to her, conferences and journals in her discipline had their own set of guidelines to instruct the writers to use a specific format of writing, including specified font size, spacing, and tables and figures placement. The format chosen for this particular assignment was, she claimed, the one that was used in one of the two biggest organisations in the subject field. Yet, she stressed that the focus of the assignment was not to take this format as ‘appropriate’ for most conference writing, but to learn to adapt their writing to the various given formats and instructions.

This is for proceedings of conferences. And we are so used to - see, that's the thing - we are so used to see these things that we believe that this is good. It works. If it's the best way? I don't know. If it's the appropriate way? I don't know. But, they will be reading papers that follow more or less this format. They would get used to those things, yeah. [...] Every conference, every journal has a different set of guidelines. It's doing the practices in terms of you receive guidelines, you receive restrictions on a number of pages, or other stuff like that. So, I don't feel like this is random. This is the idea, yeah. (Nancy, SRI)

From her perspective, therefore, some disciplinary styles were more regularly used than others, but they were not necessarily appropriate styles for writing in her discipline at all times. Moreover, this comment suggested that being aware and adaptive to various disciplinary writing styles was considered an important aspect of disciplinary writing in Nancy’s concept of ‘appropriate’ English use.

4.7.1.4 Using ‘correct’ grammar and spelling to achieve the expected level of intelligibility

As commenting on grammatical and typographical errors in one of the students’ assignments, Nancy emphasised that there was a level of intelligibility that students must meet in their writing. She stated that language errors in general did not have a significant effect on the quality of writing if she could understand what the student was trying to say. However, those mistakes could not be overlooked when intelligibility was compromised to the level which she felt that she was “fighting to understand” the text. Referring to another student’s work, for example, she asserted that the student might have knowledge

and understanding of the topic, but it did not show in the writing since they could not “express [it] properly”.

In certain cases, of course, not always - the writing was so convoluted that I couldn't understand, I couldn't reach the point of -- because of the language. It was confusing me. [...] I remember that there were two, at least two students submitted something - this was the previous year - that was, 'Oh my god, I'm fighting to understand what students want to say here' ... because of the language. Because even the verbs were ... is this singular or plural? Urm, 'this,' what is 'this' referring to? It was confusing. So, the language was getting on the way for me. (Nancy, SRI)

Moreover, she considered that this, what she called “a minimal level” of English, was directly associated with the reputation of the programme and the institution. For instance, Nancy stressed that once students graduated with a degree, such as master’s, there would be expectations for them to work as a professional. That is, there would be expectations for them to perform “at the certain level” which live up to the reputation of the university from which they received the degree.

I hope that they wanted to express themselves better in English, they might be working on -- so, one thing that we have to - we as educators - we have to think that we're giving a certificate to someone saying, 'This person is Master's, has Master's in this unit', and there are some expectations of the professional. So, a professional person done in the X University, and the person will be applying for the job, or would be whatever. So, we expect that person to be at the certain level because they received a degree from us. My goal is that that person is capable of doing it properly. (Nancy, SRI)

Thus, her notion of a minimum level of intelligibility was also set by the expectations of her disciplinary community of practice, regardless of whether they were academics or professionals, which played a significant role in her conceptualisation of ‘appropriate’ English use in both teaching and assessment context.

CASE 6: Frank

Frank provided three pieces of coursework from the dissertation unit for the interview. A brief summary of marking components is presented in Table 15 (a more detailed version appears in Appendix I).

Table 15. Marking Criteria used by Frank

TYPE OF ASSIGNMENT	DISSERTATION
MARKING COMPONENTS	Level of knowledge and understanding of relevant ideas and methods
	Ability to apply relevant ideas and methods to specific problems or issues
	Ability to take a critical approach
	Clarity of expressions, presentation of the material and overall structure

The components under the communicative and linguistic category mainly focused on the clarity of the presentation. Regarding the marking criteria, Frank considered it a useful “framework” that he could refer to when student’s work was difficult to evaluate.

I find it helpful just to have something to hook my ideas onto. So, I don't mark with this next to me. I read it, and I-, kind of, before I start, and I have it in my head, and then I put it to one side. So, I'm not going there constantly unless I'm really umming and ahing about pi-, student's piece of work. (Frank, SRI)

However, he also pointed out that generic marking criteria could be “restrictive” in terms of writing feedback because it could give some people “a way out of individualising their feedback”. In his assessment practice, the conventional practice of disciplinary community was consistently highlighted as a means to clearly present and communicate disciplinary knowledge, which was also shown in his concept of ‘appropriate’ English use in a teaching context. The following subsections provide more details on this matter.

4.7.1.5 Using a scholarly style to display one’s understanding of discipline-specific features in writing

Commenting on one of the students’ written work, Frank reported that the student wrote in “a very proficient scholarly style”. From his perspective, a scholarly style was a discipline-specific way of constructing the argument, which should display how “the literature and the wider reading informs the ideas” and are being “weaved together” to create a coherent piece of work.

What I think with scholarly style is an ability to - I always call it a sandwich - like an ability to [...] not just sort of paraphrasing other academic's work, but [...]

saying 'Well, look. Based on my-, these are my initial conceptions. This is the literature. And this is kind of what we can take from it. These are the key points we can take from it.' And doing that almost in every paragraph, making that sandwich constructing it. To me that is a really good scholarly style. (Frank, SRI)

Although he suggested that his definition of scholarly style might not be the same as that of his colleagues, there was a “unique feature of cultural and physical cultural studies” which students were encouraged to adopt in their writing. For example, as he discussed student A’s essay, Frank reported that “narrative turn” was an important device in disciplinary writing to highlight the complexity of the data drawn from human subjects in qualitative research.

In research methods, urm, we talk about narrative turn. [...] we locate ourselves within the work very much. So, we talk first person or at least provide enough information about our own subjectivity as we might inform that research as researchers. [...] So, we're trying get the students to really embrace that if -- as opposed to kind of more a realist kind style of writing. [...] So, especially with the piece of work like this -- this student's piece of work where [they were] in a different perspective ... [they were] doing research around older adults and [they were] a young [person]. Then [they] didn't talk about that positionality, I think that should have probably been there in order to show -- they are not just able to describe, like so, 'I will not use realist writing.' But why not? Why are you taking this approach? What shifted in a kind of field of methodology to enable you to make those sorts of statements? Urm, that was missing from it. (Frank, SRI)

From his perspective, appropriate written language use was not about simply mimicking disciplinary style but understanding how the discipline-specific features played a part in conveying the meaning. This idea of evaluating students’ understanding of subject knowledge through their use of disciplinary conventions in academic discourse was consistently shown in both his teaching and assessment contexts.

4.7.1.6 Using ‘appropriate’ grammar and terminology to clearly communicate disciplinary knowledge

Regarding the clarity of expression, Frank stated that students were expected to use the typical structure of a research paper, which consisted of introduction, literature review, methodology, analysis, discussion and conclusion. However, he personally considered that the clarity of writing could also be achieved without following that exact format as he was commenting on one of the students’ essays.

Sometimes I think students could do really well with not following, like, really clear structure. But, that said, they are expected to do, with this particularly, I mean, this is very prescriptive, like laid out for them - an introduction, literature review, methodology, analysis and discussion and then a conclusion. Urm, and that is what they do. But things like, see, for example, the policy bit in this one, I think that the policy bit should have gone somewhere front, and I think that student probably struggled - because of the given structure - to know where to put it other than the analysis and synthesis, which is sort of I understand. (Frank, SRI)

Instead, he highly valued the coherence in writing, and suggested that having “poor grammar” and inconsistent “formatting”, such as using a different indentation for each paragraph, could have a “substantial” impact on the intelligibility of writing. This was because, according to him, they tended to impede the flow of reading and understanding of the ideas which resulted in causing confusion and difficulty in his marking practice.

Moreover, he also considered that the lack of understanding discipline-specific terminology also affected the intelligibility of writing. For instance, referring to two other students’ work, he said that the one used a lot of “buzzwords”, such as *biopedagogies*, but failed to address its relevance or connection to their argument.

They were throwing those three words together in the same sort of sentences, all they were not putting the word - so not putting the word appropriately into a sentence. So, talking about something like, if you were saying, 'biopedagogies', you could also say, 'biopedagogy' or you should say, 'biopedagogical'. But they won't ever making those changes. So, it didn't really show that they had that working knowledge, they just got one word off of the slide, probably, and they were just using it. (Frank, SRI)

The other student, on the other hand, tried to incorporate stylistic devices of his discipline, such as adding “-istatoin” at the end of the word without considering what effect they would have on the overall structure and meaning of the writing.

So, obviously they just try to overcomplicate ideas, urm, not really thinking about ... and this is very discipline-specific. In our discipline, lots of words have '-isations' on the end of them, and things like that. And students are trying use those sorts of styles, and they're trying replicate those styles and that's great. But sometimes, it's almost like they become -- they forget everything about how to present their work, and you kind of read sentences in that, 'It doesn't make sense'. (Frank, SRI)

From his perspective, these mistakes indicated that students had an issue with their ability to communicate their ideas clearly, but also that they did not understand the concept of the word they were using.

Also, for Christina and Robyn, the expectations of disciplinary CofP had a significant impact on her assessment practice. However, meeting the British academic standards was another factor which affected Christina's judgement of students' written English use while Robyn highly considered the opinions of her institutional CofP. The following sections present this matter with more details.

4.7.2 The British academic standards

CASE 1: Christina

For the interview, Christina provided two pieces of coursework from one of the units, and another two from dissertation unit. Written coursework and dissertation used different marking criteria. A brief summary of the marking criteria for both assessment types is presented in Table 16 (a more detailed version appears in [Appendix D](#)).

Table 16. Marking Criteria used by Christina

TYPE OF ASSIGNMENT	WRITTEN COURSEWORK	DISSERTATION
MARKING COMPONENTS	Knowledge of subject area	Overall scope of the written work
	Development of systematic	Understanding of subject matter
	Literature review process	Use of sources
	Data analysis and cogency of argument	A critical approach to data analysis
	Critical evaluation	Structure of argument
	Presentation, writing and clarity of expression	Presentation and communication
	Referencing	Referencing
		Grammar, spelling and syntax

The components under the communicative and linguistic category mainly focused on whether the text can clearly convey what the writer intended to say with a few or no

language “errors”. This attention to communication skills was evident in Christina’s concept of ‘appropriate’ English use in both teaching and assessment contexts. Particularly in her assessment practice, her decision on what to prioritise in terms of the quality of writing mostly relied on “gut feeling” based on her academic experience although she used the marking criteria as a general guideline that provided her “a standard” of written work in her department.

I've been doing it for such a long time, so I know them [marking criteria] already. But when, urm, when it comes to my-, me moderating my own mark ... when you reach the end of the document you've got a gut feeling from what the quality of the work is in terms of attributing the mark. But then, this is when you come back to them and say, 'Okay, let me check this'. (Christina, SRI)

The following subsections present some commonalities and differences observed in terms of the perceived key components of ‘appropriate’ English between teaching and assessment context, as well as how she used them to assess students’ written work.

4.7.2.1 Using ‘correct’ grammar and syntax to ensure intelligibility

Although *Grammar, Spelling and Syntax* components were only shown in the dissertation marking criteria, Christina stressed that there should be “very few errors” in any written assignments if students were aiming for a high mark. This attention to grammar and syntax in writing was also shown in her concept of ‘appropriate’ English use in teaching context where she emphasised the importance of using ‘correct’ grammar. However, unlike in teaching context where meeting the expectations of the disciplinary community was the main reason for using ‘appropriate’ grammar, she put more emphasis on the aspect of ensuring intelligibility in the context of assessment.

For instance, she reported that grammatical and typographical errors in writing were generally regarded as a minor issue because they rarely interfered with the intelligibility of the text. In particular, spelling errors were perceived as an “easily fixable” issue which was associated with students’ lack of time management or laziness.

We have automated spelling checkers that you can run. So, the case is that student is at, on coursework that is due at 11:59pm and submitting it at 11:44pm without running any spelling checkers or anything like that. (Christina, SRI)

So, these [spelling errors] are fixable problems. Obviously, there is the, the amount of time that the problem happens, right? Whether it is a chronic problem or just a last-minute problem. So, you have to think in that way. If it appears few times throughout the text, it's actually acceptable. Urm, it shows the person can -- it just needs a little bit more effort to get it fixed. [...] But if every single word has a spelling mistake and every single sentence has a grammar mistake, you just can't make sense of it. (Christina, SRI)

On the other hand, grammar and syntax errors were considered “more complicated to fix” which students had to put more conscious effort to avoid. For example, Christina stated that it was ‘acceptable’ to have grammar errors in writing “up to a certain level”, but as master’s students, they should learn to be thorough with their work, and write in a format that was “adequate for master’s level”.

Grammar errors, uh, indicate a weaker, perhaps, training on English or education in English in writing. But then again, urm, up to a certain level, that is okay. There will be a part that is not perfect, so you should consider -- it is a part of your preparation that you should be able to write, urm, in very good English. (Christina, SRI)

If you reach the level of [master's] degree and you can't -- in an English institution and you cannot write in English, you should not be awarded the degree. (Christina, SRI)

Thus, from Christina’s perspective, language errors were ‘acceptable’ if they did not compromise the comprehension of communication, but the fewer mistakes were made, the more appropriate the writing becomes in an assessment setting.

Nonetheless, there was an expected level of intelligibility which must meet if language errors to be overlooked. For example, referring to a student who received the lower grade than other two, she stated that the student had to work on their English because although the report was intelligible to some extent, it required “a lot more input and effort” from her and other lecturers to identify whether the student’s problem was based on a lack of understanding of the concept or inability to express their opinion clearly. Moreover, she perceived that it was essential to display a certain level of intelligibility and clarity in written communication to obtain a degree from an “English institution”.

This particular comment implied that her understanding of ‘appropriate’ level of intelligibility was set upon the British academic standards.

4.7.2.2 Critical writing as “traditional academic writing”

Displaying critical thinking skills was again highlighted by Christina as an important aspect of ‘appropriate’ English use in writing. For instance, as commenting on one of students’ dissertations where the student’s writing was described as not “traditional academic writing”, Christina stated that students were expected to follow “traditional academic writing of English language” such as following conventional writing formats and sentence structures. However, she particularly stressed the need of higher critique skills in writing, which was considered to be essential for the master’s degree level programme.

I don’t think there is traditional academic writing in my discipline specifically. It’s traditional academic writing of English language. So, urm, this particularly refers to how you are being taught, urm, to write in English and [...] how you structure the text that is meaningful, yeah? [She read the feedback again] So, in academic writing, you don’t describe - you assess, you analyse, you interpret. Uh, and description is undergrad level - Year one writing. So, as you enter master’s level, you have to be critical about it. (Christina, SRI)

From her perspective, displaying critical thinking skills was a fundamental feature of academic writing in general along with the clarity of writing, particularly in the context of assessment.

[It should communicate through] clear message, but also based on the assumption that there is no single truth. They have to understand that. [...] it’s about having that awareness, critical awareness. Sometimes, you know, you have to really understand what you mean by things. (Christina, SRI)

Overall, in both teaching and assessment context, critical thinking skills were considered to be one of the key components in her concept of ‘appropriate’ English use. Yet, in the former, the importance of using them was highlighted from the perspective of ensuring the intelligibility of the writing whereas in the latter, they were described as a core skill to attain academic achievement.

4.7.2.3 Using “precise” expressions as disciplinary discourse practice

Regarding the presentation of writing, Christina reported that students’ writing was assessed by whether it was written “in a format that is academically correct”. For example, students were expected to be “a bit more precise in terms of what [they] are saying” in coursework writing. This was mainly related to the presentation of numerical data and using exact measure and scales instead of quantifying adjectives was particularly considered important.

Because it is a Master of Science, so you wouldn’t, you wouldn’t expect the students to use the word ‘a lot of it’s been done’. And it’s not about substituting -- by considerable, because it isn’t exchanging six for half-dozen, you know. Is that saying, ‘considerable amount’, a 90%? It’s more quantifiable. (Christina, SRI)

Moreover, her notion of ‘preciseness’ was also associated with referencing. According to her, students were, as engineers, expected to cite their source explicitly to show that their argument was based on evidence rather than speculation.

The students write, ‘Many authors discussed this topic’, full stop. And I said, ‘Who are they?’ [...] If you don’t give the example of who are the authors amongst many you said - you can name at least few if there are so many - that means possibly you were copying from somewhere. (Christina, SRI)

Although it was more related to taking critical approach rather than using ‘precise’ expressions in writing, extensive handling of numerical data was often highlighted as the characteristics of disciplinary writing in her field of study. Thus, explicit presentation of numerical information was considered to be one of the disciplinary discourse practices from Christina’s point of view.

Furthermore, meeting the British academic standards, particularly in terms of essay writing style, was an important factor which affected George’s assessment practice. Nevertheless, the findings also indicated that conventional practice within his institutional community, such as his colleagues in the same department or programme, also had a great impact on his decision-making in the assessment process, as presented with more details in the following section.

4.7.3 The practice of institutional CofP

CASE 5: George

For the interview, George provided assignments of four students from one of the units. The unit was shared across all master's programmes in international studies, and therefore 24 students, most of whom were from a non-UK background, were taking this unit. A summary of assessment focus is presented in Table 17 (a more detailed version appears in Appendix I).

Table 17. Marking Criteria used by George

TYPE OF ASSIGNMENT	ESSAY WRITING
MARKING COMPONENTS	Level of knowledge and understanding of relevant ideas and methods
	Ability to apply relevant ideas and methods to specific problems
	Ability to reflect critically on relevant knowledge and methods
	Ability to develop clear and original arguments
	Clarity of expressions, presentation of the material and overall structure

The components under the communicative and linguistic category mainly focused on the structure of argument and the clarity of expressions. Although George's notion of 'appropriate' English use was mostly based on language norms of his disciplinary community of practice in teaching context, he stressed that written assessment in social science was usually "not an exact science", and therefore it would always involve calibration and moderation such as discussion with colleagues, and second marking "as long as [the discipline] continue using essays" for the assessment. In particular, he pointed out that all academic staff must "learn with practice", which involved "a lot of moderation" as there was no particular training in terms of assessment practice.

We do a lot of moderating a second marking of each other's work so we can see what other people consider to be this-. And we're more or less-, in general agreement. So, there is some basic-, ur, something we can't pin point, but we do have basic understanding of-, 'That's kind of 60,' 'What's first?' [...] I supposed this is one of those senses we really do need to see quite a number of them to get a sense of-, worth-, [...] where things are. (George, SIR)

The findings suggested that his assessment practice was largely influenced by his colleague in the department, as well as British academic standards in writing. The following subsections provide more details.

4.7.3.1 *Using intelligible English to ensure the clarity of communication*

The intelligibility was a vital element for George to determine the appropriateness of written language use in the context of assessment. Commenting on one of the students' work, he stated that academics in his programme had a "high tolerance" for grammar and spelling errors unless they significantly interfere with the comprehension of writing. Although there was an expectation that students should write essays with "precision of language", but he argued that grammatically correct writing did not necessarily mean "a good writing".

There is that an expectation that, you know, you're going to at least be able to put your thoughts into sentences that can be understood. [...] But it's not just that it's grammatically correct. I mean, we can have a something with no spelling mistakes and perfect grammar, and then paragraphs that don't follow one another that are like a shopping list, which we wouldn't consider to be a good writing ability. (George, SRI)

Moreover, from his perspective, good writing should have well-connected paragraphs and ideas which enabled readers to follow the argument without difficulty. This attention to intelligibility and ease of understanding in written assessment was also shown in his VI where he stated that lecturers in his department were advised to focus on content rather than grammar in their assessment practice.

However, some of his comments in the discussion of good writing implied that he personally valued the correct use of grammar in English. For example, George considered grammatically correct English as a "proper" standard of English while he reported that language errors were "annoying" particularly when he was marking students' paper.

I mean, I would consider grammatic - correct grammar to be a, well, I would define it as a proper standard of English. Having said that, we're not going to penalise somebody if the verb endings don't match the, you know, things like that. It's annoying to read it, it's not nice. But, urm, that's not going to some -

suddenly bring somebody down to a 40. I would certainly highlight it and make a note and saying, 'Be aware of this. Little bit careful. Ask somebody to proof-read your work'. (George, SRI)

Furthermore, his personal discomfort with grammatical and typographical errors was exclusive to L2 English students' work.

It really is about understanding. 'Can we understand? Yes or no'. And our native, British students also make some rather, urm, grating spelling mistakes and gramma mistakes. 'Its', the possessive, 'It's'. That is even on government website, you see that everywhere. So, I had an essay, an undergraduate, brilliant, British student got an 80, and it still have that and it was so annoying. 'But, you may get an 80, but make sure, this is just...' - it's terrible. So, we wouldn't mark down on that alone. As long as it doesn't interfere with the understanding. (George, SRI)

These interview data showed that there was a conflict between George's personal preference for grammar usage and the lenient attitude of his department community towards language errors in writing. His personal view on grammatical and typographical issues in writing was similar to those of his disciplinary community which still deeply rooted in "Anglo-Saxon" perspectives as discussed in the earlier section (see 4.4.2.4). Nevertheless, George's assessment practice was mainly based on his institutional community of practice, that is, his colleagues in the department.

4.7.3.2 Using a concise style to meet the British academic writing standard

George also emphasised the importance of conciseness in essay writing, which he regarded as a conventional style of British academic writing. Referring to two students' written work, he reported that some non-UK students often tended to "start off with very poetic, very grand introductions" in their essays. He acknowledged that there was the academic culture which preferred such a dramatic style of writing, but he claimed that in British academic culture, focusing on immediate and relevant issues was considered more important. For this reason, according to him, students were advised to leave out the rhetoric and write their argument in a clear and concise way.

I think, very few first students are British in this course. And in their culture, and another academic environment, there's a tendency to start off with very poetic, very grand introductions to -- 'Oh, [this subject area] is just so important since the time of the ancient Greek', those kinds of thing. It's not really the British way.

Obviously, here, essays will start immediately - 'This essay answers this question by using this example and taking this theoretical approach. Off we go'. And so, I think [my comment] was just there to highlight to the student, you know, at least in the UK system, this is not necessary. (George, SRI)

The same component was addressed in his concept of ‘appropriate’ English use in a teaching context, but his emphasis in terms of the necessity of using a concise style in writing shifted from ensuring intelligibility to conforming to academic writing standards in UK higher education.

CASE 7: Robyn

For the interview, Robyn provided three pieces of coursework from two different units. There were two types of marking criteria attached to the programme handbook: one for written coursework and another for the dissertation. Although the materials sent by Robyn were from written coursework, both marking schemes were examined to gain deeper insight into the expected English use in her programme. The marking criteria contained the overall marking range and brief achievement descriptors. Thus, the marking components were inferred from the achievement descriptors as shown in Table 18 (a more detailed version appears in [Appendix I](#)).

Table 18. Marking Criteria used by Robyn

TYPE OF ASSIGNMENT	WRITTEN COURSEWORK	DISSERTATION
MARKING COMPONENTS	Knowledge and understanding of relevant theories and issues	Knowledge and understanding of the topic
	Cogency of arguments	Cogency and originality of arguments
	Ability to apply relevant ideas and methods to specific issues	Ability to apply relevant ideas and methods to specific issues
	Ability to take a critical approach to data analysis	Use of sources
	Clarity and style of writing	Ability to take a critical approach to data analysis
	Presentation, use of academic conventions	Accuracy and fluency of writing
	Ability to draw appropriate implications	Presentation, use of appropriate scholarly conventions
		Ability to draw appropriate implications

The components under the communicative and linguistic category mainly focused on the use of academic conventions and a particular style of writing. Robyn's assessment practice was mainly based on her experience as an academic for over 10 years. Yet, according to her, the interpretation of the marking components slightly varied from one university to another.

Although, say, most of what I do for myself is based on experience, and then I adjust that to people around me. So, for example, I just moved here. So, a lot of my experiences were outside of [this university]. And so, I found that [...] what I thought as a high pass was different to my colleagues' ideas about the high pass. So, I had to adjust my grade accordingly. (Robyn, SRI)

Moreover, she stated that it was mainly up to individual lecturers to “figure out” what aspects and elements should be valued more than others in marking practices. Therefore, she suggested that the marking scheme could be useful when two markers had to “consult and agree on a mark” because it provided specific elements to discuss together. Furthermore, she said that the moderation process with colleagues would be helpful for a new lecturer like her as it helped her to “figure out where [her] understanding of criteria fits with others” when she moved to other institution. Overall, the findings show that her emphasis on meeting disciplinary expectation around language was evident in both teaching and assessment contexts, but she also considered the norms and values of her institutional CofP in her assessment practices.

4.7.3.3 Using academic writing conventions to meet disciplinary expectations

In the interview, there was one element that constantly appeared in relation to the presentation of written work in both marking criteria and programme handbook: academic conventions. This emphasis on the use of academic convention was also highlighted in the coursework specification by encouraging students to get feedback on their use of academic English and conventions from their supervisor. Robyn suggested that academic conventions in her programme typically referred to “general written conventions for universities”, including the essay structure of introduction, body and conclusion, and “appropriate” academic writing style with formal English.

They are probably related to the language use, but also structure that [...] you know, if we think an academic convention is that every essay should have a

central thesis and/or central point, and it should have an introduction and conclusion, it should be based on evidence (Robyn, SRI)

I guess convention would be connected to a writing style. So, to make sure that you follow 'appropriate' - I put scare quotes around that - but 'appropriate' academic writing style. So that you're not too informal in your language use that your writing and a written style. (Robyn, SRI)

Here, her use of scare quotes on ‘appropriate’ was indicative of her awareness that there were different perspectives on the appropriateness of written language use in her discipline. Robyn also stated that the conventions of her particular subject field shared many features of “scientific convention” in academic writing.

In [her field of study], we want everything to be based on evidence. So, it tends to follow a kind of more scientific convention. [...] I think language use wouldn't differ that much, but there is this element of style that would be different. (Robyn, SRI)

Yet, she suggested that although in rare cases, manipulation of conventions to some extent was allowed in writing. For instance, according to her, writing with flair was one way to show students’ ability to use language in “creative and interesting ways” without compromising the clarity of writing. She pointed out that it was an unconventional way to write an academic essay, and therefore students “have to be really confident” in their use of English to take such a creative risk in their writing.

It's funny that at the same point we're talking about, following academic conventions, but I would judge writing with flair is maybe writing in an unconventional way. An unconventional way that works or somehow, it's deemed acceptable. [...] So, it seems to follow the same rules, but seems to take a little bit of creative licence. I think it's quite risky to write with flair. (Robyn, SRI)

However, during the interview, she expressed that it had not been perceived that such a criterion could be more advantageous for L1 English students than their L2 peers in the assessment. As she discussed the descriptors of over 70% marks, which included writing with flair, she suggested the possibility that there could be “more opportunities that the native speakers to get this high criteria” because the aspect of English not being their first language could make L2 English students reluctant to experiment with the language and writing style.

If English isn't your first language, you're probably less willing to bet on your skills pulling through and getting you a good result. Which I guess now, just through this conversation, I'm seeing that there may be more opportunities that the native speakers to get this high criteria. Because if, even if people who are speaking English as a second language strive, they might not be able to move past just writing clearly or writing well-structured, urm, because this is the kind of safe zone. (Robyn, SRI)

4.7.3.4 Using 'appropriate' language to meet the expectations of disciplinary CofP

Regarding the *Presentation* category, the main difference between High Pass and Low Pass was described as whether students' writing was "good and clear" or "acceptable". Robyn stated that the interpretation of these terms would be "very subjective" and this issue of vague terms used in the marking criteria was discussed with her colleague in a recent meeting. In general, however, she reported that High Pass level of writing would share many elements with that of a Distinction level; that is, it should be written clearly and concisely that readers could easily understand the content. On the other hand, Low Pass level of writing would be comprehensible, yet it might be "little wordy" and "ambiguous".

There probably wouldn't be a huge difference between High Pass and Distinction in terms of the writing style. I think both would be quite clear, urm. It's not ambiguous, you understand what they are trying to say, and they're not writing in a very wordy way that kind of goes around, the issue is quite to the point. Whereas perhaps the Low Pass level, [...] it might be a little wordy, it might be ambiguous, [...] but you still understand what the point is. So, perhaps then it's acceptable, but not very good. (Robyn, SRI)

She also briefly mentioned that ambiguity of writing was not necessarily associated with grammar use, but if there was an issue with grammar that "cause[d] the writing to be a little bit unclear and ambiguous," it would have a negative impact on the mark. This strong attention to language and its particular form was in line with her remark in the previous interview where she suggested that her discipline tended to put significant weight on "language" in terms of the 'appropriateness' of disciplinary discourse practice.

In Peter's and Olivia's assessment practices, the conventional practice of his institutional community was one of the key influencing factors, but they also highly valued the clarity

of communication in students' writing in their assessment process. The following section provides more details on the assessment practice of these two participants.

4.7.4 The clarity of communication

CASE 2: Peter

Peter provided two pieces of coursework from one of the units for the interview. It was a newly implemented unit at the time of the interview, and Peter had been involved in its design and structure. The unit was the first phase of a dissertation unit, where the students commenced a "project scoping activity" which involved choosing a topic, researching relevant literature, and designing their individual project. In the second dissertation phase they would conduct the research project and write a dissertation. The interview was conducted at the end of the first phase. The coursework consisted of 20% of oral presentation and 80% of written coursework, which was literature review part of the final dissertation. A summary of the marking criteria for both assessment types is presented in Table 19 (a more detailed version appears in Appendix I).

Table 19. Marking Criteria used by Peter

TYPE OF ASSIGNMENT	ORAL PRESENTATION	WRITTEN COURSEWORK
MARKING COMPONENTS	Worthiness of the research	Clarity and conciseness of summary
	Clarity of aims and objectives	Completeness and coherence of introduction
	Understanding of the topic	Comprehensiveness and succinctness of core material
	Clarity and persuasiveness of timeline of the project activities	Clarity and succinctness of conclusions
	Quality of presentation	Quality of report presentation
	Manner of responding to questions	

Since the focus of SRI was on his written assessment practice, the marking criteria for the oral presentation were excluded from the discussion during the interview. The components under the communicative and linguistic category heavily focused on the clarity and conciseness of communication. Yet, during the interview, Peter expressed that he found it difficult to understand some of the marking components due to their ambiguous descriptions. He was also hesitant when he tried to explain some of the

linguistic components in the marking scheme, and frequently stated that his interpretation of the components might not be the general understanding among the staff in his department. For these reasons, his assessment practice largely relied on the observation of more experienced colleagues and a moderation meeting in addition to his own marking experience. This uncertainty on his interpretation of marking criteria would be related to his position as a probationary lecturer. Nevertheless, the clarity of writing was also played a significant role whereas her emphasis on meeting disciplinary expectations around language was less evident in his assessment practice. The following subsections provide these similarities and differences with more details.

4.7.4.1 Using a concise style to enhance the “efficiency” in communication

Referring to the two of the literature reports, Peter stressed that students in his discipline were expected to practise conveying information in a simple and concise way, but it did not mean that they could neglect the details.

The idea behind this isn't to lose any details. You keep exactly the same level of detail. That's the -- and the conciseness is just to convey it. (Peter, SRI)

Although he was confident that “being concise and precise” was crucial in disciplinary writing, he was not sure why those elements were particularly emphasised in his discipline. Nevertheless, he speculated that it might be related to the trait of his discipline where efficiency was utmost valued. He also suggested that it might also be associated with the common issues found in engineering students. According to him, figures and tables were frequently used in disciplinary writing, but the students tended to repeat themselves by explaining the same information in the tables, particularly in writing.

So, in the field generally, urm, efficiency, that sort of thing is important. Perhaps it's because engineers aren't very good with words ... I'm not sure, but it's definitely a key theme, you know, being concise and precise with your words. [...] I think there's the tendency often people to waffle and repeat things [...] We would encourage them to - if the information is in the table - you can refer to the -- you can highlight the important bit. There's no point in writing out the information again. Information is already there. It's things like that. Use diagrams as much as possible to convey information because it's more efficient. (Peter, SRI)

This link between using a concise writing style and efficiency of communication can be compared regarded as in line with the relationship between using discipline-specific terminology and clear communication, which was emphasised by Peter in the previous two interviews. In other words, Peter's concept of 'appropriate' English use largely focused on communication skills.

4.7.4.2 Using the third-person writing to meet the expectation of institutional CofP

Concerning the *Quality of Report Presentation* components, Peter stated that students were expected to write in a "formal manner", which included avoiding the use of personal pronouns, contractions and colloquialism. Again, he acknowledged that the first-person writing might be acceptable in particular journals and subject areas but stressed that students were advised to use the third person in their writing since it was the common style of writing in other units in the programme.

But I think here, in this department, it's still very much around upon -- Just because I know that the way that this department dose -- consider the way they do things, so they need to learn that because, you know, for their other units they do. (Peter, SRI)

This comment indicated that the necessity of using third-person writing was only associated with his disciplinary community, but also his institutional community of practice, such as his colleagues in the same programme and department.

4.7.4.3 Using 'appropriate' grammar and spelling to ensure the clarity of communication

Using 'appropriate' grammar and spelling was also considered in assessing the quality of presentation in writing. In particular, Peter suggested that too many mistakes in grammar and spelling could "result in misunderstanding" in terms of communication. However, he considered such errors were mainly associated with students' hasty proofreading rather than their level of English.

Sometimes, it's clear that they have run a spell-checker then I think, 'Okay, they made an effort'. In this case, he ran the spell-checker, but it hadn't pick up on words which were actual words. So, he put 'mayor' instead of 'major'. And

'mayor' is the word. So that was, I think, the reason why he hadn't spotted, and I think in Spanish, it's 'mayor'. But, urm, it's understandable. (Peter, SRI)

Therefore, he stated that he would not regard them as a significant issue when students showed that they “made an effort” to check their mistakes in the writing. This particular comment highlighted Peter’s flexible approach in assessing language use, considering his earlier remark of the “strict” attitude of his disciplinary community with spelling in writing.

Case 8: Olivia

Olivia provided two different types of coursework from one of the third-year units: essay and research proposals. Both assignments were assessed using the same marking criteria. A summary of assessment focus is presented in Table 20 (a more detailed version appears in [Appendix D](#)).

Table 20. Marking Criteria used by Olivia

TYPE OF ASSIGNMENT	WRITTEN WORK (YEAR3 FINAL)
MARKING COMPONENTS	Level of knowledge and understanding of relevant ideas and methods
	Originality of idea
	Depth and rigour of argument
	Ability to apply relevant ideas and methods to specific problems
	Ability to reflect critically on relevant knowledge and methods
	Breadth and depth of literature and primary sources used
	Quality of writing; accurate use of grammar and syntax
	Quality of presentation; use of scholarly conventions

The components under the communicative and linguistic category were mainly focused on the use of accurate language and scholarly conventions in writing. Yet, Olivia stated that many experienced lecturers did not solely rely on marking criteria for their assessment practice since they would “build up instinctive knowledge” with years of marking experience.

That comes with time and through experience. For now, like, I would say, I know what the grades are by reading it without even criteria there. Because I've just got like 3 or 4 years of marking experience and marked like a thousand essays. (Olivia, SRI)

She also regarded moderation exercise as a useful mechanism to adjust lecturers' academic judgment to correspond with the shared understanding and value of the community of practice. From her perspective, therefore, interpretation and application of marking components were largely based on individual lecturers' experience and judgment. In the SRI findings, this individuality of assessment practice was often highlighted while intelligibility of writing was considered essential to ensure the quality of the report.

4.7.4.4 Polishing the writing to meet the expectation of an individual academic

In the descriptor about the quality of writing, students' writing was expected to be "polished" to receive a mark of over 70%. Olivia explained that the concept of polished writing was "not a tangible thing" while the term *polish* could also "mean anything". Thus, she stressed that the only way to clarify its meaning would be providing examples of what the lecturer considered to be well-polished writing to students.

It's not a tangible thing [...] The only possible way you can ever get close is by looking at other examples that are really good. Yeah, so that is the only possible way I reckon you could get close to, trying to identify what polish means. (Olivia, SRI)

This particular comment indicated that understanding of polished writing could differ from lecturer to lecturer. Nevertheless, she stressed that polished writing was one of many components which would not have a significant impact on grades compared to others in marking criteria such as content knowledge and creativity of argument.

4.7.4.5 Writing an intelligible text to ensure the quality of the report

Regarding the *Accurate Use of Grammar and Syntax* component, Olivia stated that she marked the paper "as a whole thing", and therefore many other would come together to make her decision on the quality of writing components in addition to grammar and syntax.

I just see it as a whole thing. and then if you could say, well, what percentage would you give to punctuation mistakes, or grammar mistakes, I don't have percentages in my head. It's a subjective bit, again, about how much weight do I give for the different part. [...] Adding it all up, again, it's not a science. (Olivia, SRI)

However, she pointed out that if grammar errors interfered with the comprehensibility of the text, it would be considered a significant problem. This was because she could not judge whether the issue was students' "poor" writing skills or their lack of understanding of the topic without understanding the text. For this reason, she said that she tried not to be harsh in the assessment if she could see that the student understood the subject "underneath the atrocious writing".

Still, underneath the atrocious writing, if you can still actually see that they know what they're talking about, if they just write atrociously ... you might get [higher mark]. If someone has got the idea? Then I'll try not to be too harsh with, urm, writing. (Olivia, SRI)

Nonetheless, she considered "correct" grammar usage an important element of 'appropriateness' of English use in a real-life working environment, as well as in her personal concept of appropriate academic English.

In the real world, that is really important because, urm, fundamental argument that I've made many times, it's not just what you say, it's the way you say it. It's not just content, it's presentation as well. You've got to sell your work and sell your ideas in the best way you can. That is really important. (Olivia, SRI)

4.8 Cross-case findings for RQ2

This section presents a comparison and analysis of the findings regarding the factors which influenced the participants' pedagogical practices across all eight cases.

Differences were observed between the factors that influenced the participants' teaching and assessment practices, but the findings also show the complexity of pedagogical practices where each factor combined and interacted together in many different ways from one individual to another. The following subsections present those similarities and differences in factors which affected the participants' teaching and assessment practices.

4.8.1 Individual differences in taking intercultural approaches into teaching

Five key factors were identified in relation to participants' teaching practices as shown in Figure 11. Many participants considered the discourse conventions of their discipline to be an important element to involve in their teaching practice, but approaches they took in teaching practice were largely influenced by their awareness of cultural differences of students, and experience with international students. In particular, those two factors were closely connected to each other as what aspect of intercultural awareness and how to incorporate them into practice was primarily based on each participant's experience as or with international students.

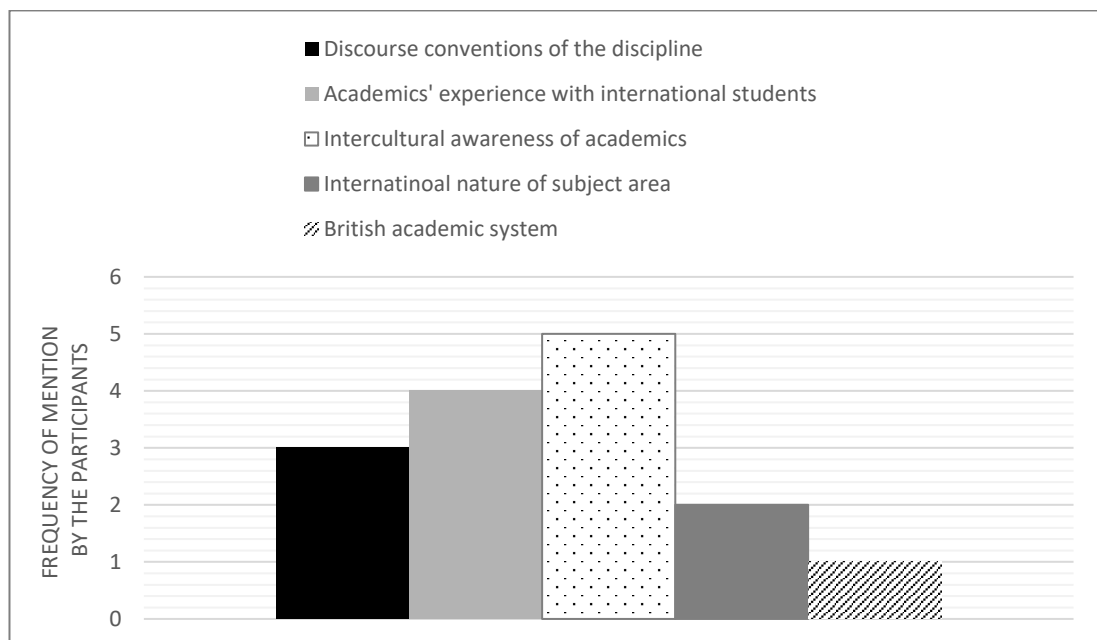


Figure 11. The key factors that influenced participants' teaching practice

For example, Christina's and Nancy's decisions to collaborate with the ASU in terms of helping their students with disciplinary writing was based on their extensive experience with international students. Yet, the differences were also observed between these two L2 English academics as Christina often reflected and applied her experiences as an L2 English student in her teaching practice, which did not show in Nancy's approaches. Moreover, George's and Robyn's focus in terms of implementing intercultural approaches in their teaching was mainly on utilising the diversity of students' cultural and experiential knowledge in their lectures. On the other hand, that of Olivia was

paying more attention to taking a culturally-informed approach to support non-UK students to be accustomed to the British academic system.

No participants were aware of whether there was any institutional support available for them to receive information or training about implementing intercultural approaches in their teaching practice. Nevertheless, most participants did not regard it as a significant issue.

4.8.2 The institutional CoP as a strong influencing factor in assessment practice

Four key factors were identified in relation to participants' assessment practice as shown in Figure 12. The aspect of intercultural awareness had a less impact in their assessment process, but they were largely influenced by the expectations and conventional practice of their disciplinary and institutional CoP.

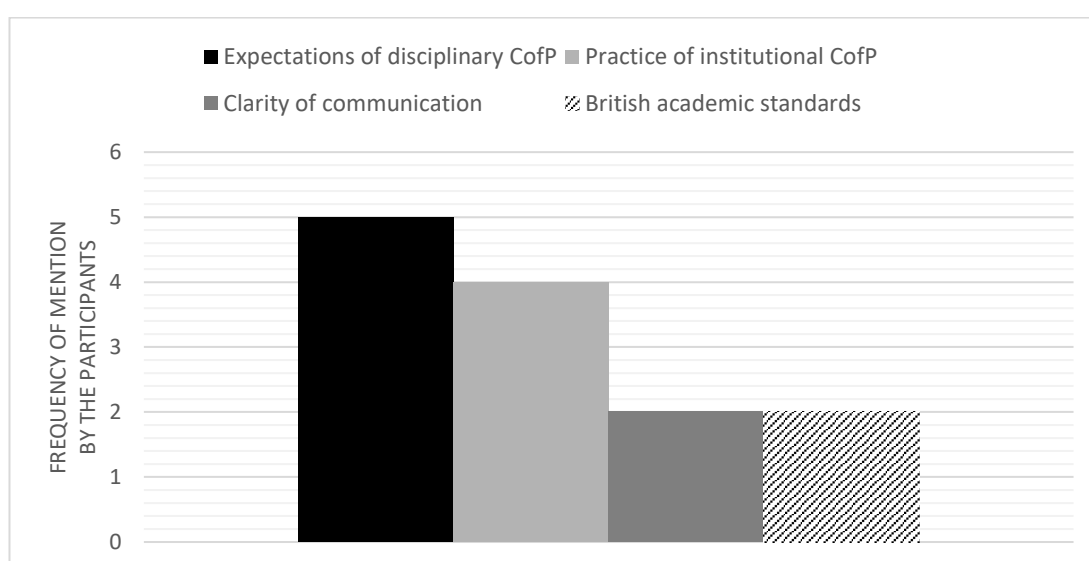


Figure 12. The key factors that influenced participants' assessment practices

In particular, most participants stressed the importance of meeting disciplinary expectations around language in their assessment process, but some of them also noted that they would rely on the shared norms of their colleagues within the programme or department if assurance about their evaluation was needed. For instance, Peter was familiar with discourse conventions of his discipline, but, as a probationary lecturer, he depended on more experienced colleagues in his department by seeking advice or observing their teaching and marking practices. Robyn, on the other hand, had extensive

experience in both teaching and marking, but she also put emphasis on adjusting her notion of ‘standards’ in marking to that of her colleagues due to her position as a new member of the institutional CofP. Nevertheless, English language proficiency which was depicted as a dominant issue of L2 English students across the documents from participants’ programmes was not particularly considered in both teaching and assessment practices of the participants in this study.

Furthermore, there was no systematic support for academics to get guidance on their assessment practice. Yet, most participants in this study did not feel the need of such support because they perceived that the skills required for assessment developed with time and experience, which was what George and Nancy called ‘academic judgement’. Indeed, during the interviews, many participants pointed out the nature of subjectivity in written assessment while developing academic judgement through marking experience and adjusting it through moderation exercise with colleagues was considered a common practice amongst the participants in this study.

4.8.3 Differences reasons for emphasising the use of ‘correct’ grammar and spelling

In the discussion of assessment practice, many participants put emphasis on the use of intelligible English which mainly included the concise use of language and following conventions of academic writing. In particular, the importance of using ‘correct’ grammar and spelling was consistently addressed by the participants in relation to the intelligibility of writing as shown in Table 21.

Table 21. The perceived importance of using 'correct' grammar and spelling

	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Case 5	Case 6	Case 7	Case 8
To ensure the intelligibility	0	0	0					0
To meet the level of intelligibility required by the disciplinary CofP			0	0		0	0	
To meet the level of intelligibility required by the British academic system	0							

Here, it should be noted that the participants in this study used ‘correct grammar’ to generally refer to British English grammar rules, but for some participants, American English grammar rules were also accepted if used consistently throughout the text.

There was a general consensus amongst the participants that the quantity of grammar and spelling errors affected the severity of incomprehensibility. However, some of them perceived that ‘incorrect’ use of grammar and spelling distorted the intelligibility of writing regardless of its frequency in the text. Particularly the participants such as Wendy, Nancy, Frank and Robyn stressed that there was a particular level of intelligibility which students were expected to achieve in their written language use. However, the reasons why this particular level was necessary for disciplinary writing varied amongst these four participants. For instance, Wendy and Frank stated that a certain level of clarity was required to communicate disciplinary knowledge, which would also affect the credibility of the report within their disciplinary communities. On the other hand, Nancy and Robyn considered that it was due to the strict attitude of their disciplinary communities in terms of language use.

Overall, although their teaching practice was often influenced by other factors, such as personal experience or characteristics of the subject area, the findings show that their approaches in the written assessment were largely determined by their own academic judgement and that of their colleagues. In other words, it was mostly individual participant’s knowledge and experience as a senior member of the disciplinary community guided their choice of approaches in their academic practices.

Chapter 5: Discussion and conclusion

5.1 Introduction

This study was conducted in order to address the following two primary research questions:

1. How do academics conceptualise appropriate English use in UK universities pursuing internationalisation of higher education?
2. What are the factors that facilitate or hinder the adoption by academics of their concept of appropriate English use in their teaching and assessment practices?

The findings show that the discourse conventions of discipline and the level of intelligibility expected by the disciplinary CofP had a significant impact on participants' conceptualisation of 'appropriate' English use, as well as their assessment practice. On the other hand, the notion of 'the international' had nearly no effect on their judgement of appropriateness of students' use of English. Moreover, the cross-case findings suggest that there were some differences and similarities amongst the participants in interpretation and reasoning in terms of the key components of disciplinary discourse conventions and the necessity of using them in academic writing.

The current chapter focuses particularly on these cross-case findings to answer the above research questions more comprehensively and reference to the relevant literature is made where appropriate. Section 5.2 addresses the first of the research questions by discussing the relationship between participants' conceptualisation of 'the international' and 'appropriate' English use in their disciplines. In section 5.3, then, the differences in influencing factors between teaching and assessment practices of the participants are mainly considered in order to answer the second question. This is followed by implications to improve academics' understanding of English as an international academic language and their support for students' development of academic discourse skills in their discipline. The chapter concludes with a section addressing the limitations, and contributions to the field of this study, and recommendations for further research.

5.2 Absence of ‘the international’ in the concept of ‘appropriate’ academic English

Research question 1 was focused on the participants’ conceptualisation of ‘appropriate’ English use especially in the context of internationalisation of higher education. To answer this question, the elements that contributed to the participants’ conceptualisation of ‘the international’ and ‘appropriate’ English use in their disciplines were explored separately, and then correlation of the elements between two concepts was examined.

The findings of this study show that conforming to the discourse conventions of discipline was considered an important aspect of ‘appropriate’ English use amongst the participants. The lecturers from engineering and science programmes, in particular, perceived ‘appropriate’ English use in a similar manner. For example, they perceived that the components such as writing in the third-person and using passive and objective voice were not only a token of disciplinary membership, but an essential means to ensure the clarity of communication. On the other hand, for those of social science programmes, there was no evident agreement on the discipline-specific components of ‘appropriate’ English use. Nonetheless, using ‘correct’ grammar and spelling was considered an important aspect of ‘appropriate’ English use in addition to following discourse conventions of the respective subject areas. In the meantime, the notion of the international had almost no effect on the participants’ conceptualisation of appropriate English use in their discipline, even for those participants who associated ‘the international’ with using English as a medium of communication.

The majority of the participants in this study perceived that the university’s internationalisation agenda was mostly associated with widening academic partnerships outside the UK, and diversifying nationalities of students and staff. Yet, they tended not to consider that the university’s internationalisation policies applied to their pedagogical practice. A similar perspective was shown in the brochures and websites of participants’ programmes as the internationality of the institutions or programmes was predominantly represented by a large number of non-UK students and a range of academic or career opportunities across the globe. Their international approaches to teaching of the programme were rarely mentioned in those documents except for a few highlights on the various types of English language support for non-UK students.

The findings of this study also indicate that there was an implicit understanding amongst the participants that academic English is a discipline-specific practice, and therefore English being one's first language was not considered a particular advantage (cf. Wendy). Particularly in regard of using a model text, most participants shared the view with those of Rampton (1990), Römer (2009) and Tribble (2017) who argue that the exemplar text chosen for disciplinary writing practice should be regarded as a product of 'an expert' rather than an L1 English speaker in the relevant subject area. Consequently, most participants generally regarded a published article in peer-reviewed journals as a 'good' example text, which was often provided to support students' learning of disciplinary literacy. In this study, only George and Robyn recognised the influence of Anglophone academic values on the concept of appropriateness in English use within their disciplinary communities. This may be because their particular subject areas frequently deal with the social and cultural issues across the world which has allowed them to be more aware of the cultural aspects of academic discourse in their disciplines than other participants.

Furthermore, the participants in this study agreed that a grammatically flawless text does not mean that it is written in a disciplinarily appropriate way, yet they also put strong emphasis on the conformity of grammar and spelling rules, and paragraph structure patterns to the dominant Western literacy tradition to ensure the 'appropriate' level of intelligibility. This prestige of Western literacy tradition, or also often referred as *essayist literacy* (Gee, 1996; Lillis & Turner, 2001; Scollon & Scollon, 1981), in academic literacy has been criticised by many researchers and scholars (Jenkins, 2014; Lea & Street, 1998; Leung et al., 2016; Lillis & Tuck, 2016; Mauranen et al., 2010). However, in this study, many of the participants frequently reported that without 'correct' grammar use, the readers, including the participants themselves, cannot properly judge the quality of research the students presented in the paper. In other words, it was not the use of 'correct' grammar and spelling per se that affected their judgement of appropriateness of students' writing, but whether the 'incorrect' grammar and spelling in the text hindered their comprehension of the main message. Nevertheless, there was also an idea amongst some participants that the use of 'correct' grammar and spelling was necessary to meet the British academic standards or to meet the expectations of their

disciplinary communities, and therefore a simply intelligible text would not be recognised as ‘appropriate’ disciplinary discourse practice.

Overall, the lack of awareness that their evaluation of appropriateness was largely based on Anglophone academic norms shown amongst the participants resonates with the concerns raised by many scholars about neglected aspects of the current academic English being mainly based on academic practice of Anglophone countries, which is deeply rooted in Standard English (Flowerdew, 2007; Jenkins, 2014; Lillis & Curry, 2010; Lillis & Turner, 2001; Maringe & Jenkins, 2015; Mauranen et al., 2010; Seidlhofer, 2012; Van Parijs, 2007). Wierzbicka (1979) reminds us that “every language embodies in its very structure a certain world view, a certain philosophy” (p. 313), and academic language is not an exception: its norms and values highly esteemed by international scholar community have constantly changed over the centuries in accordance with economic and political changes of the world (Bauer & Trudgill, 1998; Gordin, 2015). The findings from this study indicate that most participants held a traditional view on English use that was mainly constructed at a time of the US and UK-led modernisation across the world. Yet, a new global context where differences of culture are recognised and respected prompts us to reconsider our current perspectives on English use (Byram, 2018; Gacel-Ávila, 2005). That is, the genre approach and standard academic writing conventions may have their values in understanding academic discourse of L1 English contexts (Biber, 2006; Green & Lambert, 2018; Hyland, 2008), but they may not be desirable for universities pursuing internationalisation which should focus on “the fostering of a global consciousness among students, [...] to develop in students an understanding of their own and other cultures and respect for pluralism” (Gacel-Ávila, 2005, p. 123). In this regard, a translingual approach could provide useful insights for understanding global consciousness in terms of using English for international academic discourse. As for an instance, the findings of this study show that the key feature of appropriate disciplinary language can change depending on the form of language (i.e. speaking or writing), the genres of writing and the chosen methodological approach. This intricate nature of disciplinary language use is pointed out by numerous scholars in the field of academic literacies (see Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010; Dunworth, 2014; Green & Lambert, 2018; Murray, 2016; Tusting & Barton, 2016), but we could take this

approach further by emphasising the contextual use of language and developing skills to utilise multiple language knowledge for international academic communication.

5.3 Individual differences in academics' approaches to pedagogical practice

Research question 2 was answered by exploring two aspects of the participants' pedagogical practices: 1) the similarities and differences in their concepts of appropriate English use between teaching and assessment practices, and 2) the key influence factors of their evaluation of students' written work.

Regarding the former, the findings indicate that all participants in this study acknowledged the multicultural and/or multilingual nature of their classes and tried to adapt their practices to some extent. However, unlike the level of support provided for internationalising their professional network and academic reputation, there was not any explicit instruction offered on internationalising their practice at either departmental or institutional level. Consequently, many of them referred to their own experience as a L2 English speaker (e.g. Christina) and/ or their past teaching experiences with non-UK students (e.g. Nancy, George, and Robyn) to incorporate intercultural awareness into their practices. In other words, what aspect of intercultural awareness and how to incorporate them into their pedagogical practice varied from one participant from another even within the same discipline. These findings, however, must be interpreted with caution because the data was mainly derived from the participant interviews, and the detailed content of staff development courses was not accessible. Yet, even if there were any courses on internationalising academic practice, it was evident that they were not presented as compulsory or necessary to the participants at the time of the interviews. In this regard, the findings of this study are in agreement with those of other studies which point out that internationalisation of higher education in Anglophone countries often tend not to problematize the western-centric teaching and assessment practices (De vita & Case, 2003; Haigh, 2009; Trahar & Hyland, 2011). This contrast with those of non-Anglophone countries that are moving forward from simply adapting their curriculum and using EMI in the lectures to recognising the need of taking different pedagogical methods for multicultural classes (Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Cots, 2013; O'Dowd, 2018). Of course, there are inevitably differences on the issues which universities encounter concerning internationalisation process agenda between

Anglophone and non-Anglophone countries. However, developing academics' understanding of "the way one's academic discipline and its related profession (e.g. physiotherapy) are structured in a range of countries" (Sanderson, 2011, p. 664) may need to be considered a vital part of the internationalisation process if the current direction of IHE is to "focus on developing in university graduates respect for humanity's differences and cultural wealth, as well as sense of political responsibility" (Gacel-Ávila, 2005, p. 125).

On the other hand, participants' concern on intercultural awareness was much less evident in their assessment practice. In this study, most participants discussed the aspect of 'appropriate' writing from the perspective of a senior member of their disciplinary CofP in both teaching and assessment contexts. However, an impact of the expectations of disciplinary communities around language on their judgement of students' work was more significant in the latter context than the former. Moreover, the importance of understanding and adjusting to the shared norms and values of the institutional CofP, such as the fellow academics of the institution, department or the programme, was constantly addressed amongst the participants in relation to their judgement of appropriateness of students' English use. Particularly in written assessment context, the majority of the participants tend to seek their institutional community's perspectives on language use to ensure the consistency and reliability of their judgement.

Such tendency was more clearly shown in the cases where the participants were a newcomer in their institutions. For instance, Peter, despite his extensive experience in his subject field, was a peripheral to both his professional (i.e. university lecturer) and institutional communities. Unlike when he discussed the characteristics of conventions in his disciplinary communication, he showed less confidence on the topic such as assessing appropriateness of students' language use, and often stated his senior colleagues as a safeguard. In the meantime, Robyn was a senior member of both disciplinary and professional communities. As a newcomer in her current institution, however, she also considered whether her view on appropriate English use would agree with her colleagues' in her assessment practice important in her concept of appropriate English use. Furthermore, although most participants did not rely on the set marking criteria for their assessment practice, they still regarded it as a guideline to assure

themselves if their assessment met the expectation of their institution. In particular, such norms and values of their institutional CofP were often considered academic standards that students must meet in order to receive a pass mark although they largely embody 'British' academic value system.

There has been substantial research on CofP in higher education focusing the community (see Arthur, 2016; Churchman, 2005; Ng & Pemberton, 2013) or academics' identity (Bennet & Hobson, 2016; Budge & Lemon, 2016; James, 2013), but little work has been done on the relationship between academics' CofP and their pedagogical practices. Thus, further research on the aspect of academics having multiple communities of practice and its impact on their teaching and assessment practice should be undertaken to better understand the complex position that the current academics are standing in this new global context.

5.4 Implications

The following subsections present the implications for improvements on the issues associated with internationalising pedagogic practice mentioned in the above discussions.

5.4.1 Promoting self-reflexivity of academics' own assumptions in their pedagogical practices

The findings of this study support the previous studies on academic discourse as a discipline-specific practice, but they also address the need of considering it as a practice of an international academic community in the context of IHE. All participants in this study had a clear idea of what components the 'appropriate' English should entail, but most of them could not give reasons why those components are necessary other than to meet the expectation of disciplinary CofP. In particular, except those who were constantly dealing with international issue in their teaching subject, most participants were not aware of the influence of the Anglophone academic culture on their disciplinary conventions.

In this regard, academics with little or no experience of teaching a large number of non-UK students or of working in multilingual settings will benefit from establishing a platform for promoting self-reflexivity of their own assumption and its impact on their

academic practice. Self-reflection of teachers is often regarded as a great means to improve their pedagogical practices in primary and secondary education studies, it is rarely discussed in higher education contexts (Herzog, 2004). Although there are a number of studies paying attention to intercultural awareness of academics and university staff in the context of internationalisation of higher education, their perspective on academic English, including discipline-specific features in discourse, is rarely addressed as internationalisation agenda. Given that the majority of academics in UK universities is “a predominantly white, middle class, [and] UK born” (De vita & Case, 2003, p. 394), it is possible that a critical reflection on mainstream values and practices could help those lecturers to identify the existing patterns in their practice from which they could change and develop. Yet, this would also help L2 English academics to reflect their practices that are likely to be strongly influenced by the dominant norms and values of disciplinary CoP.

One of the ways to promote this practice would be using the existing moderation system; that is, in a similar manner that the participants in this study considered a moderation meeting with their colleagues to be an opportunity to clarify their understanding on marking criteria, they could get a better insight into the mechanisms of disciplinary conventions by sharing how and what led them to the current approaches in their practices, particularly related to their assessment on students’ written language use. This may not necessarily herald any imminent change to the current pedagogical practices in academia, but culture is “constantly recreated as people question, adapt and redefine their values and practices to changing realities and exchanges of ideas” (UNDP, 2004, p. 4). Thus, it would be a good start point for reconsidering the current practice by helping academics to be more conscious of their academic judgement.

5.4.2 Implementing systematic support on internationalisation of pedagogical practices

There is also a need of implementing support at institutional level, to help academics incorporate the university’s internationalisation agenda into their academic practice.

The findings of this study indicate that there were notable differences in the knowledge and understanding of support system amongst the participants depending on the

position of their profession. For instance, the participants who were at the position of Director of Studies were more informed about available services from ASU and PSU for their students, as well as for themselves. Christina's case is a good example of how academics could utilise the existing support system to assist their teaching practice to be more discipline-specific. Yet, the majority of the participants in this study had an abstract understanding of support ASU provided while there was a tacit expectation that students would eventually 'pick up' a discipline-specific way of language use by completing tasks throughout the course.

A number of studies reported that although metalanguage knowledge of language professionals is crucial in helping students' improvement of academic language skills, there are only a few that can be covered by EAP teachers alone because of the context-dependent nature of disciplinary conventions, which vary across the subject areas within the same discipline (Bergman, 2016; Clarence & McKenna, 2017; Murray, 2016). As a result, the lack of systematic guidance on internationalising pedagogical practice put all the responsibility on the individual academics which may lead to inconsistency in their approach to integrate intercultural awareness into their practices as shown in the findings of this study.

With regard to this matter, the programmes that have a high enrolment of international students could consider implementing a compulsory module embedded in the programme for their students to learn discipline-specific terminology and conventions relevant to their specific subject area. This collaborative teaching approach where the students could contact English teachers and subject specialists to work together is not particularly new in EAP studies (Belcher, 2006). However, as shown in Christina's case, students' competence in discipline-specific language use could be considerably improved by utilising the materials and assignments students used in the modules they were taking as a lecturer and EAP professional closely working together. In this way, it may also offer an opportunity for both academics and ASU staff to better understand the varied nature of disciplinary discourse.

Moreover, a number of the participants in this study reported that although they were advised not to evaluate students' work based on grammatical and typographical errors,

they found it difficult to focus on the content without being distracted by those errors. Such difficulty may be greater for those who are teaching a subject that rarely involves international issues or perspectives. Thus, instead of laying responsibility for internationalising their practice on academics, universities could provide systematic support by collaborating with ASU, for example, to offer sessions for academics to practice content-focused reading and assessment. Also, Staff Development Unit (SDU) could build a workshop to inform academics with empirical examples of incorporating intercultural awareness into teaching and assessment practice. The support can also encourage them “to learn *from* other cultures, not just *about* them” (Kumaravadivelu 2008, p. 237; italics in original) by providing guidance on how to negotiate meaning with their non-UK students by taking a translingual approach in supervision meeting and seminars.

5.4.3 Reconceptualisation of ‘I’ in IHE

Finally, marketisation of higher education is often criticised for undermining educational standards and values (De Vita & Case, 2003), but with critical adaptation and adoption of market economy, it could provide universities an opportunity to reorient the current market trend. According to Bertelsen (1998), academics must:

... reclaim their prerogative to adjudicate between changes which will promote and renew intellectual endeavour and those which are guaranteed to stifle it. [...] If advocates of the market can transform university discourse by yoking its terms to the imperatives of business, it follows that this process can be *reversed*. (p. 155; emphasis in original)

Thus, together with academics and policy makers, the higher education institutions could establish a clear definition of ‘the international’ the institutions pursue in their internationalisation, as well as develop strategies and practices corresponding to demands of the contemporary global society. This may include English language requirements which take account of the core features of discipline-specific discourse that students are expected develop throughout their programme, and transcultural and translingual pedagogy which recognises and respects different academic traditions across the world. Moreover, in the long run, this should provide sufficient criteria to evaluate

‘the internationality’ of universities, and those who met the criteria would get exclusive access to visa sponsorship, and partnership opportunities with a range of international academic and/or professional institutions.

5.5 Conclusion of the thesis

This study explored academics’ conceptualisation of ‘appropriate’ English use in their disciplinary discourse practice, and how those concepts were embodied in their pedagogical practices in the context of IHE.

The findings of this study show that conforming to disciplinary conventions and meeting the disciplinary expectation around intelligibility had a great impact on the participants’ judgement of ‘appropriate’ language use. Also, it was observed that although they acknowledged the multicultural nature of their teaching environment, the notion of the international did not have much impact on their conceptualisation of ‘appropriate’ English use. Particularly in the context of assessment, meeting disciplinary and/or institutional expectations around language use was a strong influence factor in participants’ academic judgement of ‘appropriateness’ in students’ writing. The study suggested that a critical reflection on the current discourse practice which deeply rooted on Anglophone academic conventions and taking into account the EIL approaches to reconsider the current position and responsibility of universities pursuing internationalisation. The study also indicates that academics’ being members of multiple communities of practice may have a significant impact particularly on their evaluation process of appropriateness of students’ English use. It also highlighted that understanding the differences and similarities in participants’ perception of ‘appropriate’ English will provide useful insights into the development of current discourse practice. The implications are given to provide a direction for academics and universities to improve their competitiveness in the market where the diversity of culture and English is greatly valued.

The following subsections present the limitations and contribution to the field of this study and recommendations for further research.

5.5.1 Limitations

This study had three key limitations. Firstly, the small sample size due to a limited time frame makes it difficult to generalise the findings of this study. As presented in Chapter 3, there were particular difficulties in recruiting participants from science and engineering programmes while a considerable number of academics who showed interest in the study were unwilling to spare time for interviews due to their overwhelming workloads.

Secondly, given that interviews were the primary source of data collection, I acknowledge that the participants' accounts are not necessarily "a transparent window on their world" (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 95). Additionally, IDIs, VIs and SRIs were originally planned to be conducted on a separate day for effective triangulation of the data, but most participants were reluctant to attend more than two interviews due to their busy schedules. To ensure their full participation, IDI and VI were conducted together where the former assisted the participants to focus on the topic for the subsequent interview while a few SRIs were rescheduled according to the participants' convenience.

Finally, there was lack of consistency in the types of documents used for analysis, as well as the genre of written assignment used for stimuli in the SRIs. For example, the availability of a programme handbook varied because not all institutions or programmes of the participants produced the document as such while some participants could not access a copy of students' written work that had their feedback written on again once marking was done electronically. Regarding the stimuli, all participants provided their feedback on the written assignment for summative assessment, but their genre of writing varied from a lab report to a dissertation. This was mainly because the participants were interviewed at varying stages of their programme.

Despite these limitations, however, the participants' extensive experience as academics and/ or members of their disciplinary community provided rich and broad insights on the expectations of academics regarding students' English use in their disciplines. Also, triangulation of interview methods and data analysis were used to offset such limitations mentioned above while the decisions and modifications made during this study were explained in as much detail as possible for transparency and replicability. Furthermore,

the findings of this study provide a good basis for further research and some useful implications can be drawn for EAP studies and language policies for internationalisation of higher education when a specific set of circumstances and limitations of the study are taken into consideration.

5.5.2 Contribution to the field of study

Studies of academics' perceptions on the 'appropriate' English use in relation to their pedagogical practices are still limited. The current study makes its original contribution to the field of EAP and IHE by looking at academic English use and the internationalisation of higher education together from academics' perspective. This research aims to cluster information from academics' perspectives on both 'appropriate' English use and 'the international' in their discipline to illuminate an aspect of the complexity of academic discourse and practical challenges that academics may face in their practice in the IHE context, which will add knowledge to the existing body of knowledge.

Particular light is shed on UK universities that were actively pursuing internationalisation where, traditionally, the notion of EIL is rarely discussed. Yet, with increasing number of non-UK students and staff, those universities are seen as a domain of multilingual community where English is more of a medium of instruction and communication rather than a primary language of the UK. In fact, the recent statistics for 2017/18 UK higher education show 31% of academics and 36% of PG students are non-UK, and these numbers are increasing every year. Thus, the findings of this study will also provide useful insight to universities on how they should improve their competitiveness in the market, where the diversity of culture and English is greatly valued.

5.5.3 Recommendations for future research

There are several areas where further research could be done to expand on the findings of this study. For example:

- 1) Future research with a broader sample of academics across the disciplines is required to identify distinctive patterns in particular disciplinary community's concept of appropriate language use. Also, a longitudinal study of a specific

disciplinary community may enable the researcher to explore how academics accept the change of the established conventions within the community of practice. Findings from these studies could contribute to increasing awareness of current changes in higher education regarding using English as an international academic language.

- 2) The findings indicated that the participants who had extensive experience of teaching a large number of international students, or whose subject area constantly dealt with international issues, such as international relations and TESOL, put more conscious effort into incorporating intercultural approaches to their academic practice. Thus, it would be of interest to investigate whether academics in similar subject fields would conceptualise appropriate English use in a different manner, or impact of other variables on academics' judgement on appropriateness of English use in their discipline.
- 3) Another area of possible research is to follow up the academics who take part in self-reflection practice on their pedagogical practices in the long-term to investigate whether there is any change in their concept of appropriate English use and/or their assessment practices.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Vignettes



Background information

Remy is a lecturer in X University.

The university is renowned for its international culture, and the number of international student is increasing every year.

Remy teaches one of postgraduate courses and he noticed that the proportion of international students in his class has fairly increased over last three years.

Below are a number of situations that Remy encountered during the summative assessment. For each situation, please state **what** you think Remy could do and **why**.

I. Written assessment: Elia

Elia's understanding of the subject matter is very good.

Remy finds her approaches to the topic and analysis of data quite unique and interesting. However, her writing style is somewhat unconventional in this discipline.

Her arguments are well-supported, and the paper has only few typos, but she has been told that her writing needs polishing.

II. Written assessment: Joe

Joe's understanding of the subject matter is very good.

His choices of the topic or approaches to solve the problem are quite predictable, but the way he presents his argument is eloquent in an academic style.

His writing is well-structured, but he does not take critical approaches to the topic.

III. Oral assessment (presentation): Marion

Marion's understanding of the subject matter is very good.

Remy finds his topic interesting. The key issues are well identified as well as critically analysed. However, the language he uses is somewhat unconventional in this discipline.

His slides are well-structured, but he has been told that this speech needs polishing.

Appendix 2: Interview protocol

Interview protocol A: Semi-structured background & Vignette interview

Instruction

- ✓ Briefly explain about how the interview will be proceed.
 - The interview involves two parts
 - Part 1 is about general teaching context (e.g. module, activities, students)
 - Part 2 involves three scenarios on assessment
 - Both interviews will be voice-recorded.
- ✓ Collect the completed consent form or get signature if needed.

Main questions: background

About the programme and/or module

1. Could you tell me more about your programme/ module(s)?
 - a. What do students do in this module? (e.g. essays, presentation, group or individual project)
 - b. How are they assessed at the end of the course?
2. (roughly) What is the ratio of non-UK students to home students in the programme/module?

About teaching practices

3. Are there any benefits of teaching in a university with a large international student body?
4. Are there any challenges of teaching in a university with a large international student body?
 - a. No issues → Q5
 - b. How do you deal with the issue(s)?
 - c. Are you aware of any support to help academics with such issue(s)?
5. Does having students with a range of cultural backgrounds have any impact on your teaching or the way you interact with your students (in lectures, supervision and etc.)?

About the concept of international

6. What does the word 'international' mean to you?
 - a. What does being international mean in your discipline?
 - b. Are there any changes/ differences in the understanding of international between the past and nowadays?
7. Considering the university's policies and its support system, do you think they agree with your idea of international?
 - a. Yes → Q8
 - b. No → how different?

Main questions with vignettes

- ✓ Read the background information of the vignette together. Make sure the participant understood the context of the vignettes.

Vignette 1

8. What advice would you give Remy to help him mark Elia's assignment?
9. What advice could Remy give Elia to help her get a better grade?
10. What is regarded as an unconventional writing style in your discipline?

Vignette 2

11. What advice would you give Remy to help him mark Joe's assignment?
12. What advice could Remy give Joe to help him get a better grade?

Vignette 3

13. What advice would you give Remy to help him mark Marion's assignment?
14. What advice could Remy give Marion to help him get a better grade?

Post vignette questions

15. Who do you think tends to have more difficulties in academia: Elia, Joe or Marion?
Why?
16. Which one would be more disadvantageous in your discipline: unconventional writing style or unconventional language use in speaking?

Closing interview

- ✓ Is there anything you would like to add or clarify?
- ✓ Arrange the second interview
 - Remind the participant to send **three separate pieces of written feedback** (e.g. any written assignment, dissertation, etc.) before the interview
 - Ask if the participant could send programme handbook and assessment criteria, if any.

Interview protocol B: Stimulated-recall interview

Instruction

- ✓ Briefly remind the participant what we discussed in the previous interview.
 - Their module
 - Existing support system for academics and students
 - Meaning of international
- ✓ Inform the participant about the focus of the discussion in this interview.
 - Continue discussing the role of English in their discipline
 - How language components contribute to their assessment process
 - Questions related to the provided stimuli (i.e. feedback sheets)
- ✓ Explain that this interview is not about their marking or feedback style

Main questions

The role of English in the discipline

1. Is there such a thing as appropriate English? (both spoken & written)
 - a. Yes → what is appropriate English?
 - b. No → skip to Q3
 - c. It depends → Tell me more
2. How important is it to use appropriate English in your discipline?
3. What is the role of English in your discipline? For instance, is English something you must learn to be an expert in your field?
 - a. Yes → what sort of English should you learn?
 - b. No → when does English become important in your discipline?

With stimuli

4. What is particularly assessed in this assignment?
5. Are there any specific marking criteria for this assignment?
 - a. Yes → what aspects of language are assessed?
 - b. No → what do you consider the most when you assess this assignment?
6. Would you mark these assignments differently if you didn't have the marking criteria?
Why/Why not?
7. Ask individualised questions based on feedback sheets

Closing interview

- ✓ Is there anything you would like to add or clarify?
- ✓ Member checking - I will send you the transcription for your verification.
 - ☐ Notified
 - ☐ Refused

Appendix 3: Marking schemes

CASE 1 (coursework report)

	Knowledge of subject area & literature	Development of systematic literature review process	Data analysis & cogency of arguments	Critical evaluation	Presentation & writing & clarity of expression	Referencing
100-90	Outstanding awareness of issues with own ideas. Comprehensive review of existing literature with an outstanding evaluation and synthesis	Appropriate aim & objectives rigorously developed; tested adopting justifiable methodology. An excellent understanding is demonstrated as to how well the secondary data can be used to achieve the established aim and the objectives.	Outstandingly well developed analytical skills; exceptionally coherent arguments; excellent understanding about biasness; excellent level of independent and logical thinking	Outstanding critical evaluation; critical analysis well integrated in text. Excellent questioning of arguments presented within a comprehensive list of secondary data sources;	Outstandingly well presented & exceptionally well written; polished & fluent	Appropriate sourcing; consistently accurate – no errors
89-80	Considerable depth & breadth of knowledge; excellent awareness of relevant issues. Excellent evaluation and synthesis of literature to produce an excellent contribution.	Appropriate aim & objectives rigorously developed; tested adopting justifiable methodology. Very good understanding is demonstrated as to how well the secondary data can be used to achieve the established aim and the objectives.	Exceptionally well developed analytical skills; exceptionally coherent arguments; good understanding about the biasness. Some evidence of logical and independent thinking	Excellent critical evaluation; critical analysis well integrated in text. Very good critical analysis of arguments covering a wide range of secondary data sources;	Exceptionally well presented & /or exceptionally well written; polished & fluent	Appropriate sourcing; consistently accurate – very few minor errors
79-70	Significant breadth & possible depth with awareness of relevant issues; very good evaluation and synthesis of literature to produce a very good contribution.	Appropriate aim & objectives developed; tested adopting justifiable methodology. Good understanding is demonstrated as to how well the secondary data can be used to achieve the established aim and the objectives.	Very well developed analytical skills; coherent arguments;; some understanding about biasness.	Very good critical evaluation; critical analysis throughout. arguments presented within secondary data sources are questioned sufficiently	Very well presented &/or well written; fluent	Appropriate sourcing; consistently accurate – few minor errors

69-60	Clear depth & possible breadth of knowledge. Good use of literature and synthesis	Aim & objectives developed adopting a methodology; Sufficient understanding is demonstrated as to how well the secondary data can be used to achieve the established aim and the objectives.	Well developed analytical skills; sound arguments covering a sufficient range of secondary data sources	Good critical evaluation	Well presented &/or well written	Appropriate sourcing; consistently accurate
59-50	Sound knowledge & understanding of subject. Appropriate evaluation of literature sources and synthesis of material.	Aim & objectives developed adopting a methodology; strategic use of secondary data to achieve the aim and the objectives is recognised	Good analytical skills with some sound arguments covering some secondary data sources	Fair degree of critical evaluation	Well presented &/or competently written	Appropriate sourcing; consistently accurate
49-40	A knowledge & understanding of subject with some reference to literature. Poor choice and synthesis of materials.	Aim, objectives & methodology stated & explained. Some knowledge about secondary research is demonstrated.	Evidence of some analytical skills; use of some secondary data sources	Some critical evaluation	Adequately presented &/or adequately written	Largely appropriate & accurate
39-20	Little or unsatisfactory level of knowledge. Poor use of literature with limited sources.	Unclear aim; little or no knowledge on secondary research methods	Unsatisfactory level of analysis	Little critical evaluation	Unsatisfactorily presented &/or unsatisfactorily written	Some accuracy but largely inaccurate
1-19	No serious attempt; insufficient volume of work submitted to be able potentially to demonstrate an adequate level of performance					
0	No attempt					

CASE 1 (dissertation)

	Scope	Understanding of subject matter	Use of secondary sources	Use of primary sources	Critical analysis based on evidence	Structure of argument	Presentation / communication (including referencing)	Spelling, grammar, syntax
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90-100% Outstanding	Outstanding clarity of focus, includes what is important, and excludes irrelevant issues	Outstanding with critical awareness of relevance of issues. Exceptional expression of ideas, evidence of originality	Comprehensive review of sources. Outstanding evaluation and synthesis of source material with no significant errors	Outstanding collection of pertinent data, using robust methods of collection, and adding to knowledge base in discipline	Outstanding analysis, authoritative questioning of sources, understanding of bias, very strong independence of thought and cogency	Outstanding structure, compelling and persuasive argument that leads to a valuable contribution to field, paves way for future work	Very high levels of presentation. Full information and extent of analysis conveyed lucidly.	Outstanding written language. Flawless
80-89% Excellent	Excellent clarity of focus, boundaries set with no significant omissions or unnecessary issues	Excellent, with critical awareness of relevance of issues. Excellent expression of ideas, some originality	Excellent independent secondary research. The majority of significant sources are evaluated and synthesized	Data collection of very high standard, relevant to dissertation and robust method, providing avenues for future research	Excellent analysis – highly coherent questioning of sources, understanding of bias, strong independence of thought and cogency	Argument has excellent structure and persuasiveness, leading to significant insights and relevant future work	Very high levels of presentation. Full information and extent of analysis conveyed lucidly.	Excellent written language with only minor flaws
70-79% Very good	Clear focus. Very good setting of boundaries, includes most of what is relevant	Very good with critical awareness of relevance of issues. Very good expression of ideas, potential for originality	Very good independent secondary research. A wide range of sources are evaluated and synthesized	Data collection of high standard, allowing the testing of analytical questions specific to dissertation	Very good critical analysis. Sources are questioned appropriately, and a very good understanding of bias, showing independence of thought and cogency	Well-structured and persuasive argument. Insightful conclusion draws together key issues and possible future work	Very high levels of presentation. Full information and extent of analysis conveyed lucidly.	Very good written language with few, very minor errors

60-69% Good	Clear scope and focus, with some minor omissions or unnecessary issues	Good, with some awareness of relevance of issues. Ideas are expressed well, with some minor limitations	Good secondary research to extend taught materials. Evidence of evaluation of sources, some deficiencies in choice and synthesis	Good data collection, simple methodology, relevant results for the study	Critical analysis with some questioning of sources. Understanding of bias, with some evidence of independence of thought and cogency	Structured and fairly convincing argument leads to conclusion that summarizes key issues	Presentation satisfactory, with limited but effective style of presentation	Good written language, some minor errors but none affects clarity
50-59% Satisfactory	Scope evident and satisfactory but with some omissions and unnecessary issues	Basic with limited awareness of relevance of issues. Limited but satisfactory expression of ideas	Limited secondary research to extend taught materials. Limited evaluation of sources, deficiencies in choice and synthesis	Adequate engagement with data collection to provide basis for primary analysis, awareness of methodological issues	Analysis evident but uncritical. Sources are not always questioned, with limited but acceptable independence of thought and cogency	Argument has some structure and development towards conclusion with limitations in summary of issues	Presentation satisfactory, with limited but effective style of presentation	Acceptable written language. Some errors in punctuation, spelling, sentence construction
40-49% Unsatisfactory	Inadequately scoped with significant omissions and unnecessary issues	Inadequate understanding with little awareness of relevance of issues	Very limited extension of taught materials. Poor choice and synthesis of materials	Inadequate use of primary data for purposes of dissertation. Methodologically weak	Vague analysis displaying lack of clarity or focus. Some relevant elements discernible	Argument is largely unstructured, vague conclusion. Evidence that structure could be strengthened	Inadequate presentation which needs to strengthen clarity and precision of communication	A number of errors in punctuation, use of words, spelling and sentence construction, many significant, obscuring meaning of text

30-39% Inadequate	Very vague definition of topic with few relevant issues	Very shallow understanding, with many relevant elements omitted	Very limited use of secondary materials, with inclusion of irrelevant / inappropriate sources	Insufficient collection of primary data with little awareness of methodological considerations	Very vague analysis with apparent contradictions / errors. Some awareness of role of analysis	Largely discursive approach to topic which presents little argumentation	Poorly organized and presented with some information difficult to understand. Presentation hinders presentation of key themes	Significant errors in punctuation, use of words, spelling, sentence construction, making arguments difficult to understand
20-29% Poor	Extremely confused perception of topic with significant misrepresentation of issues	Some significant misunderstandings which prevent coherent discussion	No use of secondary sources beyond taught materials	Poor data collection with significant methodological error / confusion	Extremely limited and largely unsuccessful attempt at analysis. No discussion of sources	Entirely discursive piece of work with no structured presentation of argument. Cursory conclusion	Poorly organized and presented with some information difficult to understand. Presentation hinders presentation of key themes	Coherence and structure of argument is fundamentally obscured due to poor use of language
10-19% Very poor	Scope of topic almost irrelevant to dissertation	Subject misunderstood in the main, with significant errors and omissions in knowledge	No use of secondary sources beyond taught materials. Taught material inadequately engaged with	Unusable primary data, through inadequate collection or methodological flaws	No analysis beyond general speculation. No discussion of sources	No argument or structure beyond loosely connected list of points. No substantive conclusion	No attempt to present work in acceptable format	Almost complete lack of comprehension with only vestiges of argument / information understandable due to very poor use of language
0-9% Extremely poor	No awareness of scope of topic or any relevant issues	Total misunderstanding of subject	No meaningful use of any secondary source material	No evidence of awareness of need for primary data collection or methodology	No valid analysis	No evidence of argument or conclusion	No attempt to present work in acceptable format	Dissertation incomprehensible due to level of spelling, grammar and syntax

CASE 2 (oral assessment)

Motivation of topic area	Description of project	Outline of related work	Timeline of project activities	Quality of presentation	Response to questions
Worthiness of the research (include evidence from student answering questions)	Show clear aims and objectives (include evidence from student answering questions)	Show understanding of the topic (include evidence from student answering questions)	Show clear and convincing project activities (include evidence from student answering questions)	Consider use of visual aids, speech, body language	Respond the question with an authoritative, informative, respectful and professional manner
10%	20%	20%	10%	20%	20%
Guideline for marks	<30%: unacceptable 30-40%: insufficient 40-50%: poor 50-60%: average 60-70%: good 70-80%: excellent >80%: exceptional				

CASE 2 (written assessment)

Summary	Introduction	Core material	Conclusions	Quality of report presentation
Clear and concise, containing essential material for: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Topic background - Reading, analysis undertaken 	Complete & coherent, giving details of: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The context of the project topic - The aims of the literature review 	Contains a full yet succinct treatment of: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Description of published work in the subject area - Relevance of certain references to the project 	A clear and succinct conclusion, relating: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The aims of the project to the literature reviewed - The main findings from the core material 	Reports will be assessed on these attributes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Ordering: the choice of a logical sequence for the selected material

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Conclusions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The work to be undertaken 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Analysis of the references <p>Good reports will also contain a significant amount of critical review (for instance, limitations of the other people's work)</p>	<p>Good report will also convey a deep insight into the various aspects of the reviewed literature.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Style: the manner of writing; choice of words and clarity of expression; conciseness - English: accurate use of the language; grammar; punctuation; spelling - Layout: use of paragraphs; headings; numbering; tables and figures - Appearance: neatness and legibility (e.g. use of hand-drawn diagrams, use of headings, fonts etc.)
5%	10%	60%	10%	15%

CASE 3 (literature writing)

Coverage of the topic and number/ range of references cited	Communication of the scientific content using contemporary sources of information	Quality and appropriateness of the illustrations used	The level of content and analysis was appropriate for [unit code]	Conclusions and quality of critical analysis	Quality of the writing
Either an in-depth discussion of a focussed area or a less detailed account of a broader topic				Includes significance of the sources, data etc.	Includes use of the template, scientific style, spelling and grammar etc.
30%	10%	10%	10%	20%	20%
Guideline for marks	0-3: below an acceptable level 4: the minimum acceptable level, some important factors omitted, writing is unclear and tells a confused, uncritical story 5,6: most relevant topics covered, but lacks depth and critical analysis, some presentation/writing is unclear 7,8: information generally presented logically and clearly, but with some gaps in the analysis 9: extensive coverage, high degree of analysis and critical comment, complex information, clearly presented and discussed in a way that shows good appreciation of the topic 10: outstanding, could be submitted as a review paper with minimal modification				

CASE 3 (Report writing feedback guideline)

Introduction & methodology	Results and discussion	Presentation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the presence of an appropriate introduction <u>pitched at the right level</u> - a clear description of the experimental or computational methods and techniques 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the clarity and quality of the results - a critical discussion of these within the context of previous work - the presence of justifiable conclusions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the quality of the figures and captions - the number of typographical and grammatical errors - the quality of the referencing
40%	20%	20%

CASE 3 (Report writing)

	Achievement Descriptors and Attributes
91-100% Exceptional (1 st Class)	Exceptional report with all work of the highest standard; excellent interpretation of results including critical comparison with previous work and demonstrating conceptual understanding well beyond that expected at UG level; high impact publication has or will result. Rarely awarded and needs <i>full and comprehensive</i> justification.
81-90% Outstanding (1 st Class)	Exceptional report containing work of the highest standard; excellent interpretation of results including critical comparison with previous work and demonstrating conceptual understanding beyond that expected at UG level. Needs <i>full and comprehensive</i> justification.
76-80% Excellent (1 st Class)	Very high quality report containing work of the highest standard; high level of conceptual understanding and <u>critical appraisal clearly demonstrated</u> ; high level of originality demonstrated.
70-75% Very Good (1 st Class)	High quality report; clearly demonstrates good levels of conceptual understanding and reasoning; results critically and unambiguously discussed and placed within broader context; project area described with good breadth and depth.
68-69% Borderline (1/2.1)	Very close to 1 st class standard but has not met all the requirements of the above.
60-67% (2.1 Class)	Very competent report with good quality results; demonstrates good levels of conceptual understanding and reasoning; <u>critical discussion</u> of results and project area included in some breadth and depth.

58-59% Borderline (2.1/2.2)	Very close to 2.1 standard but has not met all the requirements of the above.
50-57% (2.2 Class)	Competent written report with reasonable quality of results, shows some evidence of conceptual understanding and reasoning, some critical discussion of results and their context, but this may lack breadth and depth.
48-49% Borderline (2.2/3 rd)	Very close to 2.2 standard but has not met all the requirements of the above.
40-47% (3 rd Class)	Report of a passable standard, some understanding of the project area demonstrated, but <u>clear deficiencies in the way that the results are communicated</u> ; deficiencies in observing and recording project work which casts doubt on the quality of the results.
0-39% FAIL (Not worthy of credit)	Very little or no work reported; report demonstrates very little or no knowledge and understanding of the area; little attention to detail; little effort put into the report; recording and performing project work so poor as to make the results useless; overall, not worthy of a pass. Rarely awarded and needs <i>full</i> justification

CASE 4 (Analytic report writing)

Content	Structure	Presentation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Scope and coverage of work - Depth and penetration of analysis and evaluation - Use of references beyond the ones suggested - Relevance and validity of conclusions - Pertinence and incisiveness of views expressed - Individuality and creativity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Structure and organisation of work - Sequencing and development of facts, ideas and argument - Relationship between findings and conclusions - Degree of integration and synthesis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Clarity and conciseness of communication - Fluency and consistency of style - Visual quality and legibility - Appropriateness in selection of modes of presentation (written, graphic statistical, etc.) - Includes correct referencing style and extent of reference sources
60%	20%	20%

CASE 4 (Additional general marking scheme)

	Scope	Achievement Descriptors
80-100% Excellent	Outstanding performance that fulfils and exceeds designated learning outcomes	Demonstrates a deep understanding of the subject matter that indicates the student is already thinking at a high level. Employs sophisticated reasoning and shows evidence of understanding complex concepts from reputable reading sources. Excellent expression.
70-79% Excellent	Excellent performance relative to designated learning outcomes	Shows comprehensive understanding of the subject matter covered in the assessment with a facility for applying the concepts to examples of the student's own investigation or conception. Strong evidence of reading reputable publications. Very good expression.
60-69% Good Pass	Very good performance relative to designated learning outcomes	Shows broad understanding of the subject matter covered in the assessment and has mostly applied it correctly or sensibly. Has begun to investigate independently. Reading has improved understanding of the essential material provided. Good level of expression.

50-59% Pass	Good performance relative to designated learning outcomes	Shows understanding of the subject matter, but with some misunderstanding which need attention. Some attention may need to be given to the expression.
40-49% Low Pass	Satisfactory performance in designated learning outcomes	Some understanding of the subject matter, but to a more limited extent than would be present for higher marks. This may mean that the analysis may show some limited weakness or that there is a sense in the assessment that the material is not fully understood. Expression needs serious attention.
35-39% Borderline Fail	Borderline Fail	The student shows a limited grasp of the subject, or makes serious mistakes.
20-34% Fail	Fail	A failure to meet the assessment criteria for the piece of work, either through consistently poor execution, comprehensive misunderstanding of the assignment or a failure to address the question set.
0-19% Fail	Fail	A failure even to approach the learning outcomes for the assessment criteria. Significant portions of the assessment either not present or not comprehensible as an answer to the question set.

CASE 5 (written assessment)

Indicative Marking Guidelines for Coursework, Exams and Dissertations

Marking range			Knowledge and understanding of relevant ideas and methods	Ability to apply relevant ideas and methods to specific problems	Originality, including ability to reflect critically on relevant knowledge and methods, and to develop clear and original arguments	Clarity of expression, presentation of material and overall structure (including referencing)
Distinction	80% or more	Outstanding performance that fulfils and exceeds designated learning outcomes	Knowledge and understanding of material beyond that stipulated in the unit	Near perfect application of relevant ideas and methods. Incisive analysis of empirical material, leading to strong and accurate conclusions.	Original and insightful. Potentially publishable as a working paper. Worthy of sharing with a wider readership.	Potentially publishable as a working paper.
	70-79%	Excellent. Designated learning outcomes	Unusually high level of knowledge and the unit.	Relevant ideas and methods applied clearly drawn.	A high degree of analytical and insight.	Fully meets formal criteria.
Merit	60-69%	Very good performance relative to designated learning outcomes	Good understanding of relevant knowledge, with evidence of relevant wider reading	Clear understanding of relevant ideas and methods, with mostly correct application. Good use of empirical material to illustrate points and to justify arguments. No significant weakness in competence in the subject	Strongly argues with critical thought, independent analysis, argument, and/or application of theory.	Has met the criteria well. Generally shows good writing ability.

Pass	50-59%	Good performance relative to designated learning outcomes	Identifies key issues and demonstrates some understanding of relevant concepts, with some evidence of relevant reading.	Competent application of relevant ideas and methods to empirical material. Provides examples to illustrate points and justify arguments. Conclusions arrived at through analysis, rather than just a statement of position. Case studies have a clear purpose and message.	Well argued. Some critical thought. Logical organisation to the answer. Clever evidence of some “value-added” through application to empirical data, critique and/or logical exercise of independent judgement.	Has met the formal criteria. Reveals and ability to set out an argument or answer clearly and logically.
	40-49%	Satisfactory performance in designated learning outcomes	Some knowledge of the material provided and identifies relevant issues, but without evidence of wider reading. May reveal some gaps in knowledge and understanding.	Knowledge of relevant ideas and methods, but weakness in their use. Evidence used is relevant. Addresses the question set or proposed. Some ability to argue logically and to organise an answer.	Evidence of basic analytical ability or appreciation of the subject.	The candidate has met basic criteria, but there are weaknesses. Generally show adequate writing ability, and appropriate standards of English.
Fail	30-39%	No credits awarded	Only partial knowledge and understanding of key concepts and ideas. Shows poor comprehension of the basic facts and principles. Prone to inaccuracy and tendency to irrelevance.	Failure to identify and use appropriate ideas and methods. Arguments lack adequate illustration or empirical support or empirical material is purely decorative. Failure to address the question clearly enough.	Little original thought.	Weak presentational skills, inadequate or improper referencing. Fails to meet formal criteria in one or more ways.
	< 30%	No credits awarded	There may be some relevant knowledge, but it is muddled and demonstrates a poor understanding of the subject.	The answer may be totally or largely irrelevant to the question. Empirical material incorrect or incorrectly used.	No evidence of original thought.	Fails to meet formal criteria in numerous ways.

CASE 6 (dissertation)

Undergraduate programmes: generic marking criteria 2014/15

Marking range		Knowledge and understanding of relevant ideas and methods (reading and research)	Ability to apply relevant ideas and methods to specific problems or issues, and take a critical approach (Analysis)	Clarity of expression, presentation of material and overall structure (including referencing) (Communication)
First	86-100%	Consistent evidence of the ability to read widely and with discrimination in the search for information; very effective deployment of reading to support arguments; capacity to use appropriate evidence from other disciplines.	The focus of the question/problem/task is understood; primary and secondary issues are clearly identified and well distinguished; theory and concepts are deployed in a very confident and precise manner which is critically self-aware; evidence of ability to evaluate, select and deploy competing/alternative analyses/perspective/solutions insightfully is apparent.	The structure is clear, logical and professional; the form of communication/medium selected is appropriate; technical and/or conceptual language or set of skills is used with confidence, accuracy and clarity; virtually no grammatical or spelling errors; answer is well thought through and fluently written.
	70-85%	Evidence of selection of material from a wide range of sources; critical use of reading and its effective deployment to support analysis; strong evidence of independent research.	The focus of the question/problem/task is clearly understood; key issues are understood and significant related issues are identified; theory and concepts are deployed in a manner which is critically self-aware; ample evidence of analysis of relevant theories; ability to deploy competing/alternative analyses/perspectives/solutions is apparent.	The argument is well organised: the structure is clear; the form of communication/medium selected is appropriate; technical and/or conceptual language or set of skills is used with accuracy and confidence.
2i	60-69%	Evidence of reading from a number of recommended sources; effective deployment of reading in support of analysis; evidence of independent research.	The focus of the question/problem/task is understood although there is a limited attempt to synthesise; key issues and one or two related issues identified; analytical techniques/methods are theoretically informed although a slightly limited analysis of these is undertaken; some awareness of competing alternative analyses/perspectives/solutions is apparent.	The structure is clear; the form of communication/medium selected is appropriate to the task; overall the argument is concise although lacks some coherence at times; an appropriate technical and/or conceptual language is used most of the time; some minor grammatical and/or spelling errors. Close to word limit (i.e. $\pm 10\%$).

2ii	50-59%			
3 rd	40-49%	Evidence of selection of material from a limited range of sources; few, if any, sources beyond class/lecture notes; limited evidence of research; some appropriate material used, but ideas not adequately developed or explored.	The focus of the question/problem/task is only understood at a basic level; mostly descriptive, with analysis and reflection being limited; weak argument, lacking coherence; not well substantiated with evidence.	One or two elements of an appropriate structure are present; considerable grammatical and spelling errors are evident.
Fail	21-39%	Limited evidence of reading; reading has been misunderstood; reading has not been used in support of the argument.	The focus of the question/ problem/ task is poorly understood; the analysis is unbalanced while key elements are omitted; no conclusions are drawn or those that are drawn are not adequately linked to the argument; very little analysis or evaluation	Use of English is seriously flawed; basic evidence of structure to the answer; referencing is poor/inaccurate; poor syntax and expression; considerable amount of irrelevant material, although less than the 0-20% category.
	0-20%	No or very little evidence of any relevant readings undertaken	No engagement with pertinent issues; assertions not supported by evidence; description is weak and incomplete; disjointed with hardly any relevancy to the set problem: very superficial, no coherent argument.	Little evidence of any structure; poor organisation and expression; significant number of grammatical and spelling errors; no signposting; much irrelevant material.

CASE 7 (written assessment)

Marking range		Descriptors
Distinction	80% or more	<p>Evidence of all the criteria at 70+ distinction level and in addition:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clear evidence of individual searching and extensive reading or original sources. • Excellent balance between breadth of research/issues discussed, and depth of important papers/evidence examined. • Persuasive analysis/critique is both at the 'macro level' (the overall research output in the field) and at the 'micro level' (limitations of individual studies).
	70% or more	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strong and clear line of argumentation, tight structure. • Writes clearly, logically and concisely, with flair. • Very high presentational standards. • Adheres to academic conventions. • Very good understanding of theories and issues. • Able to grapple with the implications of those theories. • Literature and evidence critically evaluated and discussed at both micro and macro levels of discussion. • Evidence of penetrating insight and analysis. • Addresses the question thoroughly and explicitly. • A study design (where chosen) is extremely well-presented and shows evidence of understanding research methods well beyond the basic level. • Draws important implications for teaching and learning (where appropriate).
High Pass	60-69%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Generally well structured. • Logical argument throughout. • Good clear writing. • Respects academic conventions. • Clear evidence of understanding theories and issues. • Some evidence of critical reflection but more would be warranted. • Beginning to show evidence of individuality of insight. • Extensive reading, but sticks mostly to reading lists provided. • Good balance of breadth and depth. • Studies discussed in sufficient detail. • Addresses the question clearly. • Study design is clear and shows good understanding of research methods and their implications. • Draws implications for teaching and learning (where appropriate).

Low pass	50-59%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reasonably well structured with some attempt at pulling themes together. • Writing quality is acceptable but more proofreading warranted. • Some gaps in student's understanding of academic conventions. • Issues, studies etc. not always adequately explained. • Some assertions not substantiated. • Weak attempt at critique. • Little evidence of insight. • Evidence of having read some key papers. • Rather too many secondary sources. • Studies not always adequately explained. • Reader has to infer the way in which the candidate has addressed the question. • Study design is sufficiently clear and there are no serious design flaws. • Some implications for teaching and learning (where appropriate) are drawn but their relevance may be open to question.
Fail	49% or lower	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Little or no cohesion between ideas. • Sentences are tortuous and incomprehensible. • Little or no evidence of proofreading. • No indication of awareness of academic conventions. • Inadequate understanding of the principles of 'X'. • Rarely a proper discussion of the issues. • Too many expressions lifted from the literature without demonstrating understanding • Superficial reporting of evidence, no critical discussion. • No evidence of insight. • Little evidence of reading, and far too many secondary sources. • Shows little evidence of either breadth or depth. • Issues/ studies not discussed in sufficient detail. • Difficult to determine how the question is addressed. • Study design is not clear and/or is seriously flawed showing lack of understanding of research methods, even at a basic level.

CASE 7 (dissertation)

Marking range	Descriptors
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Distinction	80% or more	<p>Evidence of all the criteria at 70+ distinction level and in addition:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quality of the research, presentation, and argument is of publishable quality. • Clearly adds to knowledge in the field.
	70% or more	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Presented in a manner that shows considerable organizational skill. • Reviews literature which has been selected in response to the initial formulation of the questions, is up to date, and is critiqued where appropriate. • Shows a highly comprehensive knowledge of the topic/ field. • Contains original insights and interpretation of evidence. • Methodology section (where appropriate) is detailed, transparent and appropriate to the questions being asked • Analysis of data is always valid, reliable, and internally consistent. • Includes arguments/ discussion that are thought provoking and innovative. • Avoids unsupported generalizations • Draws important implications for teaching and learning with a clear link to the findings.
Pass	-	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Presented in a manner which shows a good level of organization. • Reviews literature which has been appropriately selected although there may be some minor omissions. • Demonstrates knowledge of the field which confirms a mastery of the basic issues although not all complexities may have been recognised and the review may be more descriptive than analytical/ critical. • Methodology section (where appropriate) provides the reader with sufficient detail to assure him/ her that the study was conducted appropriately with respect to the questions being asked. • Analysis of data is, generally, valid and reliable. • Includes a discussion which brings together the main findings in an interesting way. • Avoids unsupported generalizations but may not provide a sufficient discussion of the study's limitations. • Draws implications for teaching and learning which by and large match the findings.
Fail	-	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lacks organization. • Does not adequately cover the field/topic through the literature review. Major sources are not represented. • Confusion as to whether sources are primary or secondary. • Some confusion as to the argument that is being conducted. • May include a methodology section (where appropriate) but it lacks transparency such that the reader is left in doubt as to the validity reliability of the data collected. • The analysis does not follow a clear line of development • The discussion is characterized by unsupported generalizations • Some implications for teaching and learning are drawn but their relevance is open to question.

CASE 8 (written assessment)

Marking range		Descriptors
First	80% or more	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrates substantial intellectual self-confidence and originality of thought. • Shows a rigorous understanding of key aspects of the topic and thorough acquisition of coherent and detailed knowledge. • Incisive argument is sustained throughout, bringing together theory and practice where appropriate. • Organises material systematically. • Makes critical use of a very wide range of scholarly literature and primary sources. • Work is set within the context of current research in the field and of ideas with techniques which are at the forefront of the discipline and shows an impressive understanding of the limits of knowledge. • Shows impressive qualitative and quantitative ability where appropriate. • Writing is polished, accurate and fluent. • Presentation uses appropriate scholarly conventions.
	70-79%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrates intellectual self-confidence and originality of thought. • Shows a rigorous understanding of key aspects of the topic and thorough acquisition of coherent and detailed knowledge. • Incisive argument is sustained throughout, bringing together theory and practice where appropriate. • Organises material systematically. • Makes critical use of a wide range of scholarly literature and primary sources. • Work is set within the context of current research in the field with of ideas and techniques which are at the forefront of the discipline and shows an excellent understanding of the limits of knowledge. • Shows impressive qualitative and quantitative ability where appropriate. • Writing is polished, accurate and fluent. • Presentation uses appropriate scholarly conventions.
2i	60-69%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrates a rigorous understanding of key aspects of the topic. • Shows acquisition of coherent and often detailed knowledge. • Argument is sustained, focusing consistently on the title/ question. • Organises material systematically. • Makes critical use of appropriate scholarly literature and primary sources. • Show awareness of current research in the field, and of ideas and techniques which are at the forefront of the discipline and shows a good understanding of the limits of knowledge. • Shows qualitative and quantitative ability where appropriate. • Writing is accurate and fluent. • Presentation uses appropriate scholarly conventions.

2ii	50-59%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrates a good understanding of key aspects of the topic. • Shows acquisition of coherent and often detailed knowledge. • Argument is sustained, but could be developed further in places. • Organises material effectively. • Makes critical use of appropriate scholarly literature and primary sources. • Shows awareness of current research in the field with of ideas and techniques which are at the forefront of the discipline and shows an understanding of the limits of knowledge. • Shows qualitative and quantitative ability where appropriate. • Writing is generally accurate, but shows occasional errors or grammar and syntax.
3rd	40-49%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrate some understanding of key aspects of the topic. • Shows acquisition of coherent and sometimes detailed knowledge. • Argument is sustained, but lacks depth, rigour and complexity. • Engages with appropriate scholarly literature and primary sources. • Show awareness of current research in the field with of ideas and techniques which are at the forefront of the discipline and shows some understanding of the limits of knowledge. • Shows reasonable qualitative and quantitative ability where appropriate. • Writing often lacks fluency, clarity and precision and requires both proof reading and redrafting.
Fail	30-39%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Misunderstands or is confused about key aspects of the topic. • Presents some appropriate knowledge and evidence base, but handles these very superficially. • Argument is present, but is insufficient or incoherent in parts. • No sustained engagement with the set title/question. • Has used some appropriate texts, but does not use a sufficient range of scholarly literature and primary sources at this level. • Writing is marred by continual errors of grammar, syntax and spelling. • Presentation is poor and ignores appropriate scholarly conventions.
Poor fail	0-29%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Misunderstands or is confused about key aspects of the topic. • Presents some appropriate knowledge and evidence base, but handles these very superficially. • No sustained argument is presented. • Written work may be very brief and/or unfinished. • Very little engagement with the set title/question. • Has used inappropriate texts for honours degree level work. • Writing is marred by continual errors of grammar, syntax and spelling. • Presentation is poor and ignores appropriate scholarly conventions.

Appendix 4: Comparing scores

CASE 1, 2, 4, 5

IELTS	PTE Academic	Cambridge Certificate of Proficiency in English (CPE)	Cambridge Certificate of Advanced English (CAE)	TOEFL iBT
6.0 (with no less than 6.0 in the writing element and no less than 5.5 in each component)	59 (with no less than 51 in any component)	175 (with no less than 169 in all elements)	175 (with no less than 169 in all elements)	-
6.5 (with no less than 6.0 in each component)	62 (with no less than 59 in any component)	184 (with no less than 175 in all elements)	184 (with no less than 175 in all elements)	90 (no less than 21 in any element)
7.0 (with no less than 6.5 in each component)	69 (with no less than 62 in any component)	193 (with no less than 184 in all elements)	193 (with no less than 184 in all elements)	100 (no less than 24 in any element)
7.0 (with no less than 7.0 in each component)	69 (with no less than 69 in any component)	193 (with no less than 193 in all elements)	193 (with no less than 193 in all elements)	100 (no less than 27 in any element)

* □: changed minimum scores from 2017

CASE 3, 6

IELTS	PTE Academic	Cambridge Certificate of Proficiency in English (CPE)	Cambridge Certificate of Advanced English (CAE)	TOEFL iBT
6.0 (with no less than 6.0 in the writing element and no less than 5.5 in each component)	59 (with no less than 51 in any component)	175 (with no less than 169 in all elements)	175 (with no less than 169 in all elements)	-
6.5 (with no less than 6.0 in each component)	62 (with no less than 59 in any component)	184 (with no less than 175 in all elements)	184 (with no less than 175 in all elements)	90 (no less than 21 in any element)
7.0 (with no less than 6.5 in each component)	69 (with no less than 62 in any component)	193 (with no less than 175 in all elements)	193 (with no less than 175 in all elements)	100 (no less than 24 in any element)

7.0 (with no less than 7.0 in each component)	69 (with no less than 69 in any component)	193 (with no less than 184 in all elements)	193 (with no less than 184 in all elements)	100 (no less than 27 in any element)
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* □: changed minimum scores from 2017

CASE 7

Test	IELTS	TOEFL iBT	Cambridge Certificate of Proficiency in English (CPE)	Cambridge Certificate of Advanced English (CAE)
Standard level scores	7.0 (with no less than 6.5 in each component)	100 *with no less than: 22(Listening), 24 (Reading), 25 (Speaking), 24 (Writing)	185 (with no less than 176 in all elements)	185 (with no less than 176 in all elements)
Higher level scores	7.0 (with no less than 7.0 in each component)	110 *with no less than: 22(Listening), 24 (Reading), 25 (Speaking), 24 (Writing)	191 (with no less than 185 in all elements)	191 (with no less than 185 in all elements)

CASE 8

IELTS	PTE Academic	Cambridge Certificate of Proficiency in English (CPE)	Cambridge Certificate of Advanced English (CAE)
6.0 (with no less than 5.5 in each component)	55 (with no less than 51 in any element)	Grade C	Grade C
6.5 (with no less than 6.0 in each component)			

* □: additional minimum score for one specific programme from 2017